

DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 037 525

VT 009 906

AUTHOR Piven, Herman; Alcabes, Abraham
TITLE The Crisis of Qualified Manpower for Criminal
Justice: An Analytic Assessment with Guidelines for
New Policy. Volume 1, Probation/Parole.
INSTITUTION Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development
(DHEW), Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO JD-Pub-564
PUB DATE [68]
NOTE 94p.
AVAILABLE FROM Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government
Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402
(FS17.2:C86/2/V.1, \$1.00)

EDRS PRICE EDRS Price MF-\$0.50 HC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS *Administrative Policy, *Manpower Needs, *National
Programs, *Parole Officers, *Probation Officers,
Recruitment, Tables (Data)
IDENTIFIERS *Criminal Justice, Parole, Probation

ABSTRACT

This study analyzed data on manpower problems and solutions in criminal justice with special reference to probation and parole. It provides guidelines for the development of a national policy regarding probation and parole manpower and training, which were established through systematic assessment of manpower shortages and standards, and of several strategies designed to deal with the need for qualified personnel in criminal justice. Detailed analysis covers manpower shortages, the feasibility of expanding training facilities, the costs of expanding the pool of qualified personnel, and the strategy for upgrading agency efficiency. The creation of a national network of university crime and delinquency centers is proposed as the most practical solution to this national problem, and the study examines this concept in terms of the needs and recommended programs, administrative structure, staff, stipends, and funding. Extensive charts present the data. The second volume of the study, concerned with correctional institutions, is available as VT 009 907. A third volume will address the problem of law enforcement. (BC)

ED037525

**The Crisis of Qualified Manpower for Criminal Justice:
An Analytic Assessment with Guidelines for New Policy.**

VOLUME 1

Probation/Parole

**Herman Piven
Abraham Alcabes**

Pilot Study of Correctional Training and Manpower

**U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Social and Rehabilitation Service
Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development**

**U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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Foreword

The field of correctional services for convicted offenders has as much reason to be grateful to the authors of this report as the average citizen concerned with his personal safety. Recent survey studies have clearly shown that most people will admit to the commission of a crime for which they might have been sent to jail or prison under existing law. Yet the vast majority of these same people go on to lead productive lives that contribute to the general growth and prosperity of the country. The basic crime problem, then, is the crime *repeater* who engages in serious and frequent criminal acts as an integral part of his way of life. How we can get enough well trained professionals to bring about the law-abiding adjustment of these persistent offenders to life in the free community is the central concern of this report.

There is a remarkable emerging consensus among experts in the field of criminal justice about the strategic value of the community-based treatment of offenders. Potentially confirmed offenders must be identified early and assisted by a strong and versatile mixture of corrective community services so they can meet the essential requirements of a law-abiding existence. This was the central recommendation on correctional programs offered by the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice in 1967.

The study reported in this volume does not try to enumerate and evaluate the rehabilitative programs which might be used in the community for serious offenders. Instead it surveys and reports what leaders of criminal justice agencies, universities, academic departments and professional schools have to say about what we must do to staff good probation and parole services with enough well-trained people to make the rehabilitation of convicted offenders in the community a realistic and trustworthy prospect.

Rarely have the facts of a survey spoken so clearly for themselves. Here are the ambitions and hopes of a field of work, its needs, prospects and conflicts in direct confrontation. Instead of idle speculation about these matters there is offered a series of possible strategies that point out the value decisions and estimations of cost and utility that must be faced. The analysis culminates in a clearly articulated preference for a network of national centers as the most rational and practical solution. Yet this is not just the conclusion of the authors. It reflects the cumulative answer of a majority of the nation's principal agencies of corrections and law enforcement, its university administrators, its professional schools of law, social work and psychiatry, its specially created centers for training in crime and delinquency and the academic disciplines of sociology and psychology. The clarity of the answers is a tribute to the relevance of the questions, their saliency, and their logical implications for future programs and policies for staffing rehabilitative services for offenders in the free community.

Of course, it is easy to see that a fully explored national policy for correctional treatment must also examine the content of professional training, the effec-

tiveness of proposed treatment programs and the integration of programs and policies with those of other criminal justice and social service agencies. From this broader perspective this report emerges as an initial thrust toward a larger task. Subsequent volumes in this series will fill in more of the factual ground on which a reasonable public policy for the recruitment and training of criminal justice personnel must rest. Perhaps others will be urged by the value of this work to explore still other issues and to develop equally trustworthy guides to a sound national policy for corrections.

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Preface

This is the first of three volumes that assess the problems facing the field of criminal justice with respect to qualified manpower and suggest guidelines for new policy.

The "manpower crisis" in probation/parole and strategies for its solution are covered in this volume. Volumes 2 and 3 will provide similar analyses for correctional institutions and law enforcement.

The three volumes of this study are organized by separate fields so as to permit convenient use by readers with particular interests. Certain sections of each volume are applicable to all three fields and are therefore summarized to minimize repetition. A major section that analyzes findings on new institutional resources for criminal justice is contained in its entirety in volume 1. The results of this analysis are summarized in volumes 2 and 3.

The manpower schema developed by this study has proved to be of great value in analyzing the nature, extent, and location of manpower problems in probation/parole. We believe that the schema can readily be applied to other fields, especially those of social welfare. The fact that over 1,900 criminal justice agencies and academic institutions took the time and trouble to complete the extensive policy questionnaire required by the schema demonstrates its relevance to the vital concerns of these organizations with problems of manpower and education for criminal justice.

It is our hope that these volumes will be useful in formulating national policy that will deal more effectively with the critical problem of producing sufficient qualified manpower for criminal justice.

Acknowledgments

The authors wish to express their deep appreciation to the project staff whose assistance has been invaluable in the preparation of this volume: Eileen Brower, Jack Maisel, Florence Parkinson, Goldie Sherman, and Johannah Turner.

We wish to thank the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, sponsors of the project. The study was conducted under a grant from the Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development. We are especially indebted to Milton Rector, Ralph Susman, Israel Gerver, Jack Otis, Bernard Russell, Jack Scanlon, Albert Held, and Robert Rosenberg for their valuable advice and encouragement.

We also wish to offer our thanks to the many universities and criminal justice agencies throughout the country that provided the information for this study.

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(PART I)

Dimensions of the Manpower Problem

Schema for the Assessment of Manpower Shortages and Strategies

Introduction

This study of probation/parole represents one phase of a larger project on manpower and training for the field of criminal justice. It reflects a continued effort to develop new solutions for the shortage of qualified manpower in criminal justice agencies that has recently become the focus of national attention.

In part, this attention has been generated by a continuing increase in the number of crimes reported in both urban and rural areas. Agencies of law enforcement are being called upon, to a greater degree, to halt and reverse this trend. Criminal and juvenile courts are expected to process suspected and adjudicated offenders by means which are speedy, just, and—whenever possible—rehabilitative.

Probation agencies are required to aid in the rehabilitation and long-term control of that substantial number of offenders who are assigned by the court to the community. Correctional institutions are expected to provide physical care, and to vocationally and emotionally retrain their inmate populations, within the confines of the isolated community. And in the last stage of the criminal justice process, parole agencies are assigned rehabilitation and control functions in the community with large numbers of offenders newly released from correctional institutions.

This brief statement only begins to hint at the magnitude and complexity of tasks and problems confronting our criminal justice systems. Perhaps the most common response to many of these problems is "more and better trained personnel," that is, more policemen, probation and parole officers, guards, cottage parents, psychiatrists, etc.

The "manpower crisis" in these agencies is often attributed to a static public policy that fails to provide sufficient positions or salary. Another explanation focuses on the failure of universities and professional schools to provide an adequate supply of graduates who are trained for work with offenders.

However, discussions of the nature and extent of the manpower shortage in probation/parole, and solutions designed to alleviate it, seldom specify the critical relationship between recruitment conditions and training patterns. Most assessments and recommendations are too global to permit the specification required for viable policy. Seldom are the bases and ramifications of particular recommendations articulated.

This volume provides a set of guidelines for the development of a national policy regarding probation and parole manpower and training. The guidelines are established through systematic empirical assessment of manpower shortages and standards, and of several strategies designed to deal with the need for qualified personnel in criminal justice.

Dimensions of the Manpower Schema and its Applicability to Various Fields

The study has developed a schema to organize and analyze data on manpower problems and solutions in criminal justice. The central dimensions of the schema, which may be applied to other fields of work, are as follows:

I. Extent of the manpower shortage in each position, according to designated criteria (e.g., 5,600 additional probation/parole officers are needed, according to top executives, for the most effective operation of their agencies (see chapter 2)).

II. Availability of qualified personnel for each position, according to designated criteria of relevant sources (e.g., approximately 250 social work graduates are available each year for all probation/parole positions; social work training is the standard of employing executives (see chapter 3)).

III. Feasibility of expanding the designated pool of qualified personnel, considering internal conditions of the training institutions (e.g., 98 percent of social work schools are ready to expand student training for work with offenders if funds are made available) and external conditions of its environment (e.g., 87 percent of college presidents and other key academic groups legitimate M.S.W. programs with a specialization in corrections (see chapter 4)).

IV. Strategies and costs of expanding the designated pool of qualified personnel sufficient to provide a full complement of needed manpower (e.g., it would cost approximately \$450 million to provide the minimal number of social workers needed for probation/parole at the current rate of graduate recruitment (see chapter 5)).

V. Strategies for improving agency efficiency in recruiting the designated pool of qualified personnel (e.g., greater professionalization and substantially increased salaries that are not competitive in 97 percent of probation/parole agencies (see chapter 6)).

VI. Strategies designed to alleviate the manpower shortage by recruiting from sources other than the

designated pool of qualified personnel (e.g., about 250 graduates are available each year from corrections degree programs; they constitute a secondary manpower pool by the standards of probation/parole executives (see chapter 6)).

VII. A strategy to create new institutional resources designed to add trained manpower and relevant scientific knowledge for the particular field (e.g., a national network of University Crime and Delinquency Centers for training, research, demonstration, and consultation is strongly supported by 86 percent of 1,115 criminal justice systems and academic institutions (see chapter 7)).

This volume is organized around the specific questions and findings required to apply the manpower schema to probation/parole. However, the manpower schema appears applicable to various other fields and occupations. This may be illustrated by suggesting how the schema might be applied to a manpower analysis of academic sociology.¹

The parallel of academic sociology with probation/parole is inexact in several ways for purposes of manpower analysis. One apparent difference has to do with the clear separation in probation/parole between the hiring agencies of the field and the schools that serve as training institutions for new personnel. Such a distinction is not organizationally clear in academic sociology in that the collective hiring entity of the field (universities or departments offering courses in sociology) is often referred to by the same term as the training institutions that produce qualified academic sociologists (graduate departments of sociology). In point of fact, many universities and sociology departments that employ sociologists do not offer a Ph. D., so they must try to recruit their faculty from the training institutions that do.

A difference of some importance between probation/parole and academic sociology, for illustrative purposes of manpower analysis, is the competitive prominence of each field among those who are formally qualified. Probation/parole is not a prestigious field among social workers and is generally neglected by the schools. In contrast, academic sociology is probably more highly esteemed among sociologists than is any other employing field (industry, market research, government).

Moreover, graduate departments of sociology generally focus on producing academic sociologists and deemphasize specialized training programs designed to produce graduates for industry, market research, or government.

The manpower schema as it might be applied to academic sociology is as follows:

I. EXTENT OF MANPOWER SHORTAGE

1. How many people are employed as sociologists in academic institutions (lecturers, assistant professors, research associates, etc.)?

¹For a recent expression of concern over the shortage of qualified academic sociologists, see Melvin J. Williams, "Some Observations on Recruitment in Sociology," *The American Sociologist*, May 1968, pp. 127-129.

2. How many people are needed to fill all such positions?

3. What are the criteria that determine the number of academic sociologists needed?

II. AVAILABILITY OF QUALIFIED PERSONNEL

1. What formal standards determine who is qualified to work as an academic sociologist (Ph. D. in sociology, M.A. from a first rate university, etc.)?

2. What are the most appropriate sources for determining these standards (chairmen of sociology departments, full professors, the American Sociological Association, etc.)?

3. How many qualified people, according to the designated criteria, are now employed as academic sociologists?

4. How large a pool of qualified sociologists is being made available each year to fill the designated academic positions? Where do the other sociologists go?

5. Is the annual pool of qualified sociologists that is recruited to academic positions sufficient to meet the manpower need?

III. FEASIBILITY OF EXPANDING THE POOL OF QUALIFIED PERSONNEL

A. *Internal conditions of relevant training institutions*

1. Are the training institutions that produce qualified sociologists (presumably graduate departments of sociology) likely to increase their output in the near future?

2. Do graduate departments of sociology concur on the standards of what constitutes a qualified academic sociologist?

3. Do the administration and faculty of graduate sociology departments legitimate special programs designed to increase the number of academic sociologists (as contrasted, for example, with training programs for sociologists going into industry, market research, or government)?

4. What specific resources are needed by graduate departments of sociology to increase their output of academic sociologists?

B. *External conditions in the university and professional complex*

1. Is there consensus among university administrators and faculty of other departments regarding the formal standard for a qualified academic sociologist?

2. Do these related academic and professional groups legitimate special programs designed to increase the number of academic sociologists?

3. To what extent have these related groups in the university and professional complex previously supported programs of the graduate sociology department for producing academic sociologists?

IV. STRATEGIES AND COSTS OF EXPANSION

1. How much does it cost to train a qualified academic sociologist?

2. What is the total cost required to train a sufficient number of additional academic sociologists to meet the manpower need—assuming the current

rate of recruitment to industry, market research, government, etc.?

3. What is the total cost required to train a sufficient number of academic sociologists—assuming perfect success in recruiting all recent Ph. D.'s to academic positions?

4. Is academic sociology getting its fair share of sociology graduates? How is this fair share determined?

5. Which graduate sociology departments produce a high ratio and which a low ratio of academic sociologists?

6. How would the manpower shortage be affected if all graduate sociology departments produced their fair share of academic sociologists?

V. STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING THE EFFICIENCY OF UNIVERSITIES IN RECRUITING ACADEMIC SOCIOLOGISTS

1. How do salary levels of academic sociologists compare with those of sociologists going into industry, market research, government, etc.?

2. What specific professional conditions are likely to increase the efficiency with which universities recruit sociologists (prestigious faculty, small teaching load, extensive resources for research, etc.)?

3. Which particular target groups of qualified sociologists are the most favorable for a higher rate of recruitment to academic positions (women, disenchanted market researchers, etc.)?

VI. STRATEGIES FOR RECRUITMENT OF ALTERNATIVE SOCIOLOGICAL MANPOWER

1. Do a substantial proportion of standard-setters endorse a secondary manpower pool for academic sociology (M.A. in sociology, Ph. D. in anthropology, etc.)?

2. How large is this secondary pool, and what are its prospects for expansion?

VII. STRATEGIES TO CREATE NEW INSTITUTIONAL RESOURCES DESIGNED TO PROVIDE ADDITIONAL ACADEMIC SOCIOLOGISTS AND NEW SOCIOLOGICAL KNOWLEDGE

1. New institutional resources appear necessary insofar as the following conditions were found to exist:

a. A need for qualified manpower that is far greater than the number now employed

b. A relatively few qualified persons becoming available from existing training institutions

c. A major expansion of training programs and personnel that is costly and probably not feasible

d. Increased efficiency in recruitment that is not apt to reduce substantially the need for qualified manpower

e. Recruitment from secondary sources that will not add appreciably to the pool of available personnel and may be undesirable in any event because it represents a change in standards.

2. What new institutional resources may be created to upgrade existing personnel and recruit substantial numbers of qualified persons who would otherwise go elsewhere?

a. What support is available for this new type of institution?

b. What programs are endorsed for its operation?

c. What should its administrative structure be?

d. Who should comprise its faculty or staff?

e. What means are likely to best ensure its access to key targets for training and recruitment?

f. What sources can provide its funds?

The task of developing a rational manpower policy for academic sociology, or any other field, must depend on obtaining relevant empirical data to answer the kinds of questions outlined in the above schema. The task is further complicated when a field or position requires a particular type of work experience or set of personality characteristics in conjunction with formal training.

For example, qualifications for a juvenile court judge may include a certain amount and type of legal practice in addition to a professional law degree. An alternative set of qualifications may require clinical practice with children in addition to professional training in psychiatry.²

Insofar as additional qualifications can be clearly identified and established, they can be built into the component parts of the manpower schema. *However, the failure to clearly specify qualifications, or the absence of a reasonable consensus on the specific qualifications, makes it all but impossible to empirically assess manpower needs and to rationally formulate manpower and training policy.*

The remainder of the volume is devoted to this task for the field of probation/parole and the educational institutions that can provide it with qualified manpower.

Sample and Methodology for Analysis of Probation/Parole Manpower

In order to apply the manpower schema to probation/parole, relevant policy data were obtained from the populations listed below.³

² Such extreme differences in professional education are not fanciful in relation to the training recommended for juvenile and family court judges. Project surveys found that two-thirds of the law school deans (67 percent) recommended a professional law degree for these positions (only one dean out of 58 recommended psychiatry). Among 135 directors of psychiatric residency centers, psychiatric training was recommended for the juvenile or family court judge by more respondents (30 percent) than were general law and criminal law combined (25 percent).

³ A substantial number of additional organizations completed questionnaires for the project. These organizations are not represented here because policy items were omitted from their manpower, training and education questionnaires. See volumes 2 and 3 of this series for analysis of the need for qualified manpower in correctional institutions and law enforcement (forthcoming).

Type of organization	Number of Organizations		Return rate
	Surveyed	Responded	Percent
Criminal Justice systems:			
All probation and parole systems	1,647	807	49.0
Major correctional institution systems	210	93	44.3
Major law enforcement systems	237	108	45.6
Colleges and universities (other than professions schools)	838	511	61.0
Professional schools:			
Social work	58	50	86.2
Clinical psychology	67	44	65.7
Psychiatry	234	184	78.6
Law	133	83	62.4
University Crime and Delinquency Centers	27	26	96.3
Total	3,451	*1,906	*55.2

* Excludes late returns and completed questionnaires that did not contain policy items for this study.

The composition of populations other than probation/parole is described in appendixes A to E.⁴

Probation/Parole Systems.⁵ The 807 probation and parole systems from which data were drawn for this analysis constitute a 49 percent return of the 1,647 systems in the United States which were listed in a comprehensive agency directory⁶ and to which project questionnaires were mailed from February to June, 1966.⁷

Table 1 gives the distribution of responding probation and parole systems among nine regions of the United States.

The composition of responding probation and parole systems by function and age of offenders is contained in table 2.

The distribution of responding probation and parole systems by the level of government at which they are located is shown in table 3.

The probation/parole systems that responded to project questionnaires are located in 49 States and

⁴ A more detailed description of the criminal justice and college populations is found in Herman Piven and Abraham Alcabes, *Education, Training, and Manpower in Corrections and Law Enforcement* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, 1966), Source Books I-IV.

⁵ A probation and parole system was defined as follows: all departments, divisions, and branch offices of a public organization whose functions include probation or parole work or administration, and whose personnel were recruited to and operate under the direction of the same top probation/parole executive.

⁶ National Council on Crime and Delinquency, *Probation and Parole Directory, United States and Canada* (New York: 1963). This directory was updated in 1965 through correspondence with relevant state departments and reports from field staff of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency. Nineteen systems were removed from the population (and the number was adjusted to 1,647) because of post office returns for "no such address" or letters stating that the organization performed no probation/parole functions or was part of a larger probation/parole system that received a project questionnaire.

⁷ See appendix F for a copy of the probation/parole questionnaire (long form).

TABLE 1.—*Responding Probation and Parole Systems Classified by Region*

Region ^a	Number and percent of responding systems	
	Number	Percent
New England	(56)	6.9
Middle Atlantic	(109)	13.5
East North Central	(214)	26.5
West North Central	(71)	8.8
South Atlantic	(120)	14.9
East South Central	(40)	5.0
West South Central	(55)	6.8
Mountain	(64)	7.9
Pacific	(77)	9.5
All regions of the U.S. ^b	(1)	.1
Total	(807)	99.9

^a The nine regions correspond to those used by the Federal Bureau of Investigation for purposes of their *Uniform Crime Reports*. Federal district probation and parole offices were assigned to the region containing that city in which the district office was located.

^b Centralized federal system serving all regions of the country.

TABLE 2.—*Responding Probation and Parole Systems Classified by Function and Age Level of Offenders*

Function and age level of offenders	Number and percent of responding systems	
	Number	Percent
Probation (only):		
Adults (only)	(79)	10
Juveniles (only)	(242)	30
Adults and juveniles	(170)	21
Subtotal	(491)	61
Parole (only):		
Adults (only)	(16)	2
Juveniles (only)	(10)	1
Adults and juveniles	(4)	< 1
Subtotal	(30)	4
Probation and parole:		
Adults (only)	(23)	3
Juveniles (only)	(120)	15
Adults and juveniles	(142)	18
Subtotal	(285)	35
Unclear	(1)	< 1
Total	(807)	100

TABLE 3.—*Questionnaire Returns From Probation and Parole Systems Classified by Level of Government*

Government level	Number of questionnaires		Return rate
	Sent	Returned	percent
Federal	74	47	64
State	126	80	63
County	1,355	633	47
Municipal	92	47	51
Total	1,647	807	49

the District of Columbia.⁸ Michigan is represented by the largest number of probation/parole systems (70),⁹ followed by Ohio (57), New York (51), California (43), and Massachusetts (42). Those states with the smallest representation are Wyoming and West Virginia (2 each), and Alaska and Vermont (1 each).

A detailed questionnaire of 14 pages (long form) was mailed to 247 probation or parole systems considered most likely to engage in extensive training.

⁸ Rhode Island is not represented.

⁹ Includes all probation/parole systems located within the State regardless of government level.

These systems were of the following types: (1) centralized systems on the State and Federal levels;¹⁰ (2) systems with 10 or more full-time probation or parole officers¹¹ on any level of government. The return rate from these "larger" systems was 74 percent.

A briefer questionnaire of four pages (short form) was sent to 1,400 smaller probation/parole systems whose staff included less than 10 full-time probation/parole officers.¹² The return rate from these smaller systems was 45 percent. A substantially higher rate of questionnaires was returned by larger systems than by smaller systems at each of the four levels of government. The rate of questionnaire return by government level and size of system is summarized in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Questionnaire Returns From Probation and Parole Systems Classified by Level of Government and Size of System

Level of government and size of system	Number of questionnaires		Return rate percent
	Sent	Returned	
Federal:			
Large	12	9	75
Small	62	38	61
State:			
Large	91	64	70
Small	35	16	46
County:			
Large	130	101	78
Small	1,225	532	43
Municipal:			
Large	14	8	57
Small	78	39	50
Total	1,647	807	49

Manpower findings that are reported in this volume are extrapolated from 807 responding probation/parole systems to the 1,647 such systems in the population at the time of survey. The maximum overestimate is shown below, indicating that "large" systems are overrepresented in the sample by 7.6 percent.

Size of probation/parole system	Population		Sample	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Large ^a	15.0	(247)	22.6	(182)
Small ^b	85.0	(1,400)	77.4	(625)
	100.0	(1,647)	100.0	(807)

^a "Large" systems are those which are centralized on the State or Federal level or employ at least 10 full-time probation/parole officers.

^b "Small" systems employ fewer than 10 full-time probation/parole officers.

¹⁰ A centralized system was defined as one which had probation or parole jurisdiction over an entire geographical-governmental unit (e.g., an entire State). A decentralized system is operationally autonomous but has jurisdiction over only one part of a geographical-governmental unit (e.g., Federal district probation/parole offices).

¹¹ This is as indicated in the *Probation and Parole Directory*, *op. cit.*

¹² Followup questionnaires to nonrespondents were also short-forms. Questionnaires were addressed personally to the chief probation/parole officer or his administrative equivalent.

No adjustment was made for the differential rate of response between "large" and "small" systems. Manpower figures may therefore be slightly overestimated. However, there are several reasons for believing that manpower figures may be underestimated.

First, all agencies in the original population that failed to report data on staff size to the NCCD directory were automatically classified as "small" (fewer than 10 officers). An unknown proportion of the 1,400 "small" systems in the directory population employ a staff of at least 10 officers. Small systems therefore constitute somewhat fewer than 85.0 percent of the total population. Study findings indicate that 80.6 percent of the responding systems employ fewer than 10 probation/parole officers.¹³

A second reason for believing that manpower findings may underestimate the population is the fact that two-thirds (67.6 percent) of the responding probation/parole systems employ five or fewer officers.¹⁴ One-seventh of the systems (14.2 percent) report no such staff member and appear to be overrepresented in the sample.¹⁵ This latter group is comprised of agencies with some probation/parole functions but which employ no professional staff "whose major assignment is direct practice with cases."¹⁶ It also includes organizations which are assigned some probation/parole cases but whose primary service functions are in public welfare.¹⁷ These organizations are technically classified as probation/parole systems even though they may not employ any full-time probation/parole officers.

In sum, then, it appears that manpower findings from the study sample may reflect an overestimate from one known factor and an underestimate from another set of factors.

The manpower figures that follow are based on the judgment that no special weights be assigned in either direction. Manpower findings are therefore extrapolated directly from the 807 responding probation/parole systems to the 1,647 systems in the population at the time of survey.

Chapter 2 will analyze the extent of the manpower shortage for each of the following roles: (1) probation/parole officers; (2) administrators and supervisors; and (3) training officers.

¹³ See *Education, Training, and Manpower in Corrections and Law Enforcement*, *op. cit.*, Source Book III, table 4, p. 4.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*

¹⁵ *Ibid.*

¹⁶ For example, the Division of Probation, Administrative Office of the United States Courts.

¹⁷ For example, Baldwin County, Ala., Department of Pensions and Securities. See *Probation and Parole Directory*, *op. cit.*, p. 14.

Extent of Manpower Shortages in Probation/Parole

The extent of the manpower shortage in probation/parole depends mainly on the criteria used to determine how many such personnel are needed. The analysis that follows provides two rates of shortage: (1) the official shortage rates based on the number of official vacancies in relation to the number employed; (2) executive assessment shortage rates based on the number of personnel needed in relation to the number employed.

As shown by the findings below, official vacancy rates in probation/parole represent a substantial manpower shortage. However, on the basis of executive assessments of the number of personnel needed for the most effective operation of their agencies, the manpower shortage in probation/parole reaches critical proportions.

Overview of Probation/Parole Manpower

Number Employed. An estimated 26,600 persons were employed full-time on the professional staffs of all probation/parole systems in the United States at the end of 1965. This total includes approximately 21,100 probation/parole officers, 5,100 administrators and supervisors, and 450 training staff. At the time of the survey,¹ the average size was slightly over 16 professional staff members per agency for the 1,647 probation/parole agencies in the United States. The ratio of probation/parole officers to administrators and supervisors was just over 4 to 1. There was approximately 1 training officer to every 60 staff members.

Official Vacancies. At the beginning of 1966, there were approximately 2,100 probation/parole positions that were budgeted but unfilled. These are official vacancies and they constitute 8.1 percent of the total probation/parole work force actually employed at the time. The official vacancy rate of 8.1 percent may be regarded as the scope of the manpower shortage for probation/parole by the standard of official public policy.

The highest rate of official vacancies at the beginning of 1966 was that for training officers, with almost one vacancy for every five positions that were filled.

¹ The probation/parole survey was conducted from February through June, 1966. Agency listings were drawn from the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, *Probation and Parole Directory, United States and Canada* (New York: 1963). This directory was updated in 1965 through correspondence with relevant state departments and reports from field staff of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency.

Manpower Needed for "Most Effective Operation" of Probation/Parole Agencies. According to top probation/parole executives, almost 8,800 more staff members—or an additional one-third—were needed at the beginning of 1966 for their agencies to function most effectively. A further increase of approximately 9,100 staff members was considered necessary for the following year. The probation/parole executives thus foresee a need for a total professional work force of approximately 44,500 by the beginning of 1967. This amount represents an addition of 17,800 probation/parole personnel, or 67.0 percent more than the number actually employed a year earlier. By the standard of executive assessment, then, a considerably higher manpower shortage exists in probation/parole than is prescribed by official public policy.

The highest rate of shortage was that for training officers; almost four additional staff members were needed for every one employed.

Table 5 summarizes the scope of the manpower shortage for professional staff of probation/parole agencies.

TABLE 5.—Estimated Size of Probation/Parole Staff Employed and Needed in the United States, 1966–67^a

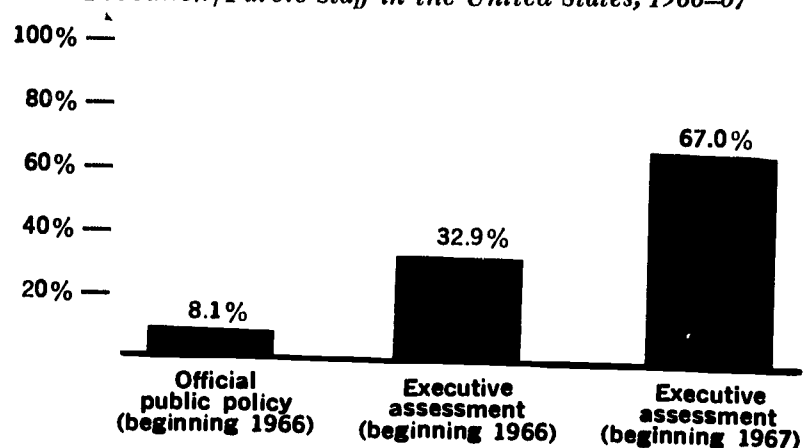
Source of standard	Employed end of 1965	Needed	
		Beginning 1966	Beginning 1967
Official public policy.....	26,633	28,780	(*)
Probation/parole executives	26,633	35,394	44,468

^a Based upon data from 807 probation/parole systems. Includes officers, administrators, supervisors, and training staff.

* Data not available at the time of survey.

Chart I shows the manpower shortage rates for probation/parole staff. Each shortage rate is determined by the percentage increase needed in the work force beyond the number actually employed at the end of 1965.

CHART I.—Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Probation/Parole Staff in the United States, 1966–67



Probation/Parole Officers (Line Practitioner)

Number Employed. At the end of 1965, approximately 21,100 full-time probation/parole officers were employed in all probation/parole agencies throughout the United States.² This is an average of 12.8 officers for each of the 1,647 probation/parole systems in the country on every level of government. However, most agencies (67.6 percent) employed five or fewer probation/parole officers. Approximately 26 systems, or 1.6 percent of all systems, employed more than 100 officers; these systems employed almost one-third (31.2 percent) of the probation/parole officers in the country.

Official Vacancies. At the beginning of 1966, there were approximately 1,650 positions³ for probation/parole officers that were budgeted but unfilled. These official vacancies constituted 7.8 percent of the total probation/parole work force for that time. This official 7.8 percent vacancy rate may be regarded as the scope of the manpower shortage for probation/parole officers with respect to the standard of official public policy.

Officers Needed for "Most Effective Operation" of Probation/Parole Agencies. In the judgment of top probation/parole administrators, approximately 26,700—or 5,600 additional officers—were required for the most effective operation of their agencies. In terms of this executive standard, the shortage was 26.6 percent of the total officer work force, or one vacancy for every four officers employed.

An even greater need for probation/parole officers was anticipated by agency executives for the following year. Changing factors, such as an increase in caseload, led them to expect a need for approximately 34,600 probation/parole officers by the beginning of 1967. This means an additional 7,900 officers, or 29.6 percent over the amount needed for effective agency operation the previous year. Moreover, it represents a total increase of 13,500 probation/parole officers, or 64.1 percent more than the number actually employed a year earlier.⁴

² This total does not include supervisors, administrators, or training officers, who will be discussed separately.

³ Personnel standards for these positions varied somewhat among agencies. Qualifications for the probation/parole officer will be considered in detail in chapter 3.

⁴ Figures reported to the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice show a manpower shortage of 88.4 percent for probation/parole officers and supervisors at the beginning of 1966. The number of personnel needed (26,711) is based on quantified workload standards of the Special Task Force on Correctional Standards as follows: (1) an intake officer for each 450 to 500 cases referred annually; (2) a workload of 50 units, where each case under active supervision is rated as 1 unit, each regular probation investigation is rated as 5 units, and each preparole investigation is rated as 3 units; (3) a full-time supervisor for every 6 full-time officers.

According to the above standards, almost one additional staff member was needed for each officer and supervisor actually employed at the beginning of 1966.

See National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States—A Survey for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice," *Crime and Delinquency*, January 1967, pp. 240, 268, and 271. The NCCD survey was conducted from February to September 1966.

Table 6 summarizes the scope of the manpower shortage for probation/parole officers.

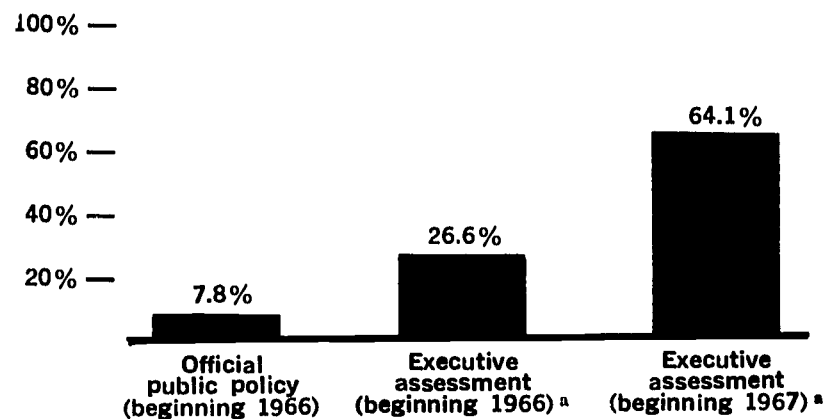
TABLE 6.—Estimated Number of Probation/Parole Officers Employed and Needed in the United States, 1966–67

Source of standard	Employed end of 1965	Needed	
		Beginning 1966	Beginning 1967
Official public policy.....	21,082	22,735	(*)
Probation/parole executives	21,082	26,681	34,587

* Data not available at the time of survey.

Chart II shows the rates of manpower shortage for probation/parole officers.

CHART II.—Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Probation/Parole Officers in the United States, 1966–67



^a Percentages are based on number of officers needed for the most effective operation of the agencies compared with the number of officers employed at the end of 1965.

Probation/Parole Administrators and Supervisors

The manpower pattern for administrative and supervisory staff in probation/parole is very similar to that for probation/parole officers.

Number Employed. Approximately 5,100 full-time supervisors and administrators were employed in 1,647 probation/parole agencies at the end of 1965 (mean=3.1).

Official Vacancies. Approximately 400 administrator and supervisor positions were budgeted but unfilled at the beginning of 1966. The official vacancy rate for these personnel therefore constituted 8.1 percent of the total of such personnel in the work force.

Administrators and Supervisors Needed for "Most Effective Operation" of Probation/Parole Agencies. Executives of probation/parole judged that their agencies would need approximately 7,100 supervisors and administrators for the most effective operation at the beginning of 1966. This would mean approximately 2,000 additional staff members, or 38.7 percent more than the number actually employed. A need for about 800 more supervisors and administrators was anticipated for the following year. Accordingly, approximately 7,900 supervisors and administrators would be required for the most effective operation of probation/parole agencies in the beginning of 1967. This represents 54.8 percent, or 2,800, more supervisors and administrators than the number actually employed a year earlier.

Table 7 summarizes the extent of the manpower shortage for probation/parole administrators and supervisors.

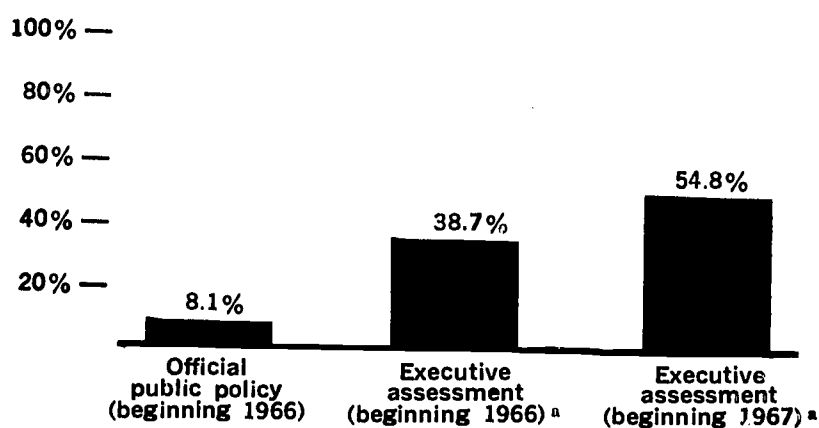
TABLE 7.—*Estimated Number of Probation/Parole Supervisors and Administrators Employed and Needed in the United States, 1966-67*

Source of standard	Employed end of 1965	Needed	
		Beginning 1966	Beginning 1967
Official public policy.....	5,106	5,518	(*)
Probation/parole executives	5,106	7,082	7,905

* Data not available at the time of survey.

Chart III provides the rates of manpower shortage for supervisors and administrators of probation/parole agencies.

CHART III.—*Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Probation/Parole Supervisors and Administrators in the United States, 1966-67*



^a Percentages in these columns are based on the number of administrators and supervisors needed for the most effective operation of the agency as compared with the number employed at the end of 1965.

Training Officers in Probation/Parole

Number Employed. At the end of 1965, approximately 450 staff members in 1,647 probation/parole agencies were engaged in training as their major assignment. There was thus an average of about one training officer for every four probation/parole agencies in the United States.

Official Vacancies. There were about 80 training positions that were budgeted but unfilled. The official manpower shortage of training officers constituted 18.4 percent of the total work force of these personnel.

Training Officers Needed for "Most Effective Operation" of Probation/Parole Agencies. Administrative emphasis on upgrading staff through in-service training can be seen in the widespread need for additional training officers. Probation/

parole executives reported that for the most effective operation of their agencies they required approximately 1,625 training officers at the beginning of 1966. This would be an increase of 1,200 training officers or almost triple the number actually employed. A need for approximately 350 more training officers was anticipated for the following year. Thus, the number of additional training officers needed by the beginning of 1967 exceeded 1,500, or was 344 percent more than the number actually employed the previous year.

Table 8 records the range of the manpower shortage for probation/parole training officers.

TABLE 8.—*Estimated Number of Training Officers^a Employed and Needed in the United States, 1966-67*

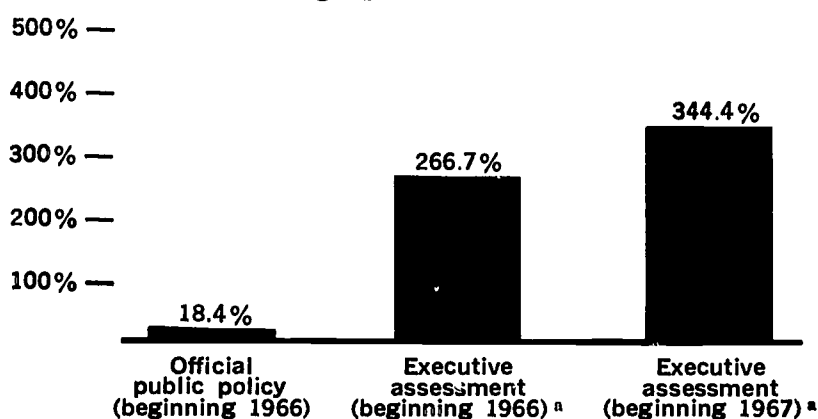
Source of standard	Employed end of 1965	Needed	
		Beginning 1966	Beginning 1967
Official public policy.....	445	527	(*)
Probation/parole executives	445	1,631	1,976

^a Probation/parole staff members whose major assignment is to plan, organize, and conduct agency training programs.

* Data not available at the time of survey.

Chart IV provides the rates of manpower shortage for training officers of probation/parole agencies.

CHART IV.—*Estimated Rates of Manpower Shortage for Probation/Parole Training Officers in the United States, 1966-67*



^a The percentages in these columns are based on the number of training officers needed for the most effective operation of the agency as compared with the number employed at the end of 1965.

The findings of this chapter reveal that public policy differs greatly from executive and professional judgment with regard to the number of personnel needed in probation/parole. By the standards of official public policy, the manpower shortage is of sufficient magnitude to be of serious concern. By the standards of executive and professional judgment, it is of such a magnitude as to constitute a manpower crisis.

Availability of Qualified Personnel for Probation/Parole

The previous chapter identified the number of probation/parole personnel needed. Who are the potential recruits who could qualify for these positions? The problem is not merely one of "bodies" but of persons qualified to engage in practice with delinquents and adult offenders.

The real crisis in social welfare is manpower—not merely quantity but quality; not merely filling jobs but rendering a valuable professional service; not merely being employed in any agency but working in soundly managed agencies in which professional skills are utilized to their fullest extent.¹

This chapter is addressed to the following questions: To what extent is qualified manpower being made available for recruitment to probation and parole? Is the pool of qualified manpower likely to increase or decrease? Will the pool be sufficient to meet the manpower shortage?

Two kinds of data are needed in order to answer these questions. First, one must identify the educational programs that formally qualify personnel for practice in probation/parole. Second, one must determine the number of graduates who constitute the pool of qualified manpower available for recruitment.

Educational Standards and Qualifications of Existing Staff

The number of qualified persons available for recruitment to probation/parole obviously depends on the standards used to determine who is qualified. Throughout this analysis, our primary source of reference for qualifying standards will be that of executive judgment. Additional sources and standards of qualification will be identified from project surveys, the literature, and private correspondence.

There are two reasons for selecting agency executives as the primary source of standards: (1) these executives are most likely to be knowledgeable about the particular problems and needs of their agencies; (2) they are in a key position to control the hiring and firing of agency personnel. It is important to emphasize the strategic importance of agency administrators in an analysis of manpower shortage if it is to be of relevance for policy. It seems unlikely that new manpower policies and programs can succeed unless the pool of personnel considered qualified by the agency executives, who must recruit them and evaluate their work performance, is expanded.

¹ Joseph Weber, "Manpower: The Real Crisis in Social Welfare," *Personnel Information*, vol. 11, No. 1, January 1968, p. 1.

The probation/parole executives whose educational recommendations are reported throughout this study represent 146 major probation/parole systems in the United States. A major system is one that employs at least 10 full-time officers, or is centralized on either the Federal or State level.² Fifty-six percent of these systems are probation agencies, 15 percent are parole agencies, and 29 percent have responsibility for both probation and parole. Thirty-one percent of these systems serve only juvenile offenders, 25 percent serve only adult offenders, and 44 percent provide services for both age groups.

The 146 systems represented in this study constitute 59 percent of all 247 major probation/parole systems in the country at the time of survey. They are distributed as follows by level of government:

- (a) 75 percent of major Federal systems (9 of 12).
- (b) 54 percent of major State systems (49 of 91).
- (c) 62 percent of major county systems (81 of 130).
- (d) 50 percent of major municipal systems (7 of 14).

RECOMMENDED EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS. Social work is the formal training that probation/parole executives strongly advocate as qualification

TABLE 9.—*Education Recommended by Probation/Parole Executives to Qualify Personnel for Probation/Parole Practice*

Work role	University area recommended ^a	Percent of executives ^b
Probation/parole officer (adult caseload).	Social work.....	46.3
Probation/parole officer (juvenile caseload).	Social work.....	56.3
Probation/parole administrator.	Social work.....	36.9
Three probation/parole roles combined.	Social work.....	*51.8
Training leader in their agency.	Social work.....	51.4

^a More executives advocate this university area for a degree than any other from among 11 choices.

^b Percentages are based on responses of top executives of 146 major probation/parole systems and do not include nonrespondents to the particular item.

^c The rank order of the remaining five university areas that were advocated by at least some executives is as follows: corrections; sociology (general); criminology; psychology (general); and public administration. The following five university areas were not advocated by a single executive: law (general); law (criminal); police science; psychiatry; and psychology (clinical).

² A centralized system was defined as one which had probation or parole jurisdiction over an entire geographical-governmental unit (e.g., an entire State). A decentralized system is operationally autonomous, but has jurisdiction only over one part of a geographical-governmental unit (e.g., Federal district probation/parole offices).

for probation/parole practice. As shown in table 9, social work consistently ranked highest among the 11 university areas from which agency executives were asked to select an appropriate education for probation/parole.³

QUALIFICATIONS OF EXISTING PROBATION/PAROLE STAFF. The educational qualifications of most probation/parole personnel vary sharply from the standard set by their executives. There is some evidence that the educational level may be decreasing in probation/parole. This pattern runs contrary to the rising educational level in most social welfare programs. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the proportion of social welfare personnel with two or more years of graduate study increased between 1950 and 1960.⁴

A recent survey done for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice found that only a few probation/parole agencies set an educational qualification that required graduate social work training.⁵ The educational standard for employment of juvenile probation officers was described as follows:

Only 4 percent of the agencies maintain the preferred educational standard of a master's degree in social work or one of the allied social sciences.⁶

The parallel figures reported by the NCCD survey for other probation/parole personnel are summarized in table 10.

TABLE 10.—Percentage of Probation/Parole Agencies With an Educational Standard of a Graduate Degree^a

Type of agency	Work role		
	Officers	Supervisors	Administrators
	Percent	Percent	Percent
Juvenile probation.....	4.0	(*)	15.0
Juvenile parole.....	2.5	27.5	(*)
Adult probation ^b	0.9	4.4	7.3
Adult parole.....	0.0	3.9	(*)

^a Data for officers and supervisors are from the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States—A Survey for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice," *Crime and Delinquency*, January 1967, table 15, p. 242. Data for administrators are from the same source, pp. 67 and 171.

^b Excludes "misdemeanant probation" because figures could not be combined for an overall percentage.

^c No data reported.

Several earlier studies report somewhat higher percentages for the educational level attained by staff members of probation/parole agencies. A Children's Bureau survey indicated that approximately 10 percent of 2,000 juvenile probation officers possessed a graduate degree.⁷ A 1962 study by the

³ For the educational standards recommended by other professional and academic groups, see chapter 4.

⁴ See Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960* (New York: National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., undated), p. 38.

⁵ See National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States," *op. cit.*, table 15, p. 242.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 57.

⁷ U.S. Children's Bureau and National Institute of Mental Health, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Report to the Congress on Juvenile Delinquency*, 1960, p. 42. Cited in *ibid.*, p. 57.

Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education covered the educational achievement of probation/parole officers in 12 western States (see table 11).

TABLE 11.—Percentage of Juvenile Probation/Parole Officers With 2 Years or More of Graduate Education^a

Work role:	Percent
Probation officer.....	24.8
Parole officer.....	37.0

^a Data are drawn from Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, *An Interstate Approach to Juvenile Delinquency* (Boulder, Colo.: 1963), table 4, p. 7; percentages are based on responses of 226 probation officers and 86 parole officers.

A 1960 national survey by the Bureau of Labor Statistics showed that among personnel who provide services to adult offenders and court services for children about 8.5 percent held a graduate degree in social work. The national average for personnel in all social welfare programs was 17 percent.⁸

Table 12 summarizes the educational attainment of the two personnel groups that are relevant to probation and parole.

TABLE 12.—Educational Achievement of Social Welfare Personnel Who Provide Services to Adult Offenders and Court Services for Children^a

Educational achievement	Program	
	Services to adult offenders	Court services for children
	Percent	Percent
High school or some college ...	23	31
Bachelor's degree or some graduate work.....	57	52
Master's degree in social work	8	9
Other graduate degree.....	12	7
Total	100	99
Number of personnel....	(5,254)	(4,923)

^a Data are drawn from Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960* (New York: National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., undated), table 18, p. 39.

Two surveys conducted by this project indicate that social work training is highly atypical in the probation/parole agency. Table 13 summarizes findings on education from a survey of probation/parole personnel. It shows that about one probation/parole staff member in 12 holds a graduate degree in social work. This finding is virtually identical to that shown by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the study described above.

TABLE 13.—Educational Achievement of Probation/Parole Personnel^a

Educational achievement	Personnel	
	Percent	Number
High school or some college.....	15.3	(156)
Bachelor's degree or some graduate work....	67.3	(687)
Master's degree in social work	8.5	(87)
Other graduate degree	8.9	(91)
Total personnel	100.0	(1,021)

^a Data are based on responses of officers, supervisors, and administrators from 25 probation/parole systems. Twenty-four systems are on the State level; one is a large municipal agency.

Table 14 reports findings on the most typical educational background of probation/parole agency personnel. It shows that less than one agency in 20 is recruiting a sizable complement of new officers

⁸ See *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960*, *op. cit.*, table 18, p. 39.

trained in social work. It also reveals that recent employees of the probation/parole agency are even less likely than experienced officers to be qualified by social work or other graduate training. Some of the latter personnel, however, may have received their training after employment in probation/parole.

TABLE 14.—Typical Education of Staff in Probation/Parole Agencies ^a

Typical education	Work role		
	Trainee ^b	New officer ^c	Experienced officer ^d
	Percent	Percent	Percent
High school or some college .	20.0	4.8	5.7
Bachelor's degree.....	80.0	88.4	75.9
Master's degree in social work	4.8	12.6
Other graduate degree.....	2.9	5.7
Total	100.0	99.9	99.9
Number of agencies	(40)	(64) ^e	(87)

^a Data are based on agency descriptions of the most typical education of their probation/parole personnel engaged in in-service training during 1965.

^b A trainee was defined as a full-time employee who would become a member of the professional staff only upon completion of his on-the-job training apprenticeship.

^c A new probation/parole officer was defined as a member of the professional staff for less than 6 months.

^d An experienced probation/parole officer was defined as a member of the professional staff for at least 6 months.

^e Five systems are represented twice because the typical education of their new officers was equally characterized by two of the listed categories.

The central facts that emerge from study data and other sources reveal a wide disparity between the educational qualifications of probation/parole staff and the standards held by probation/parole executives. Very few agencies maintain an educational standard that requires social work training as formal qualification for employment. Only a small percentage of probation/parole personnel are trained in social work. Newer recruits to the probation/parole staff are less likely than more experienced staff members to be trained in social work.

It seems reasonable to infer from these findings that the stress of the manpower shortage is being reflected in a lowering of educational standards for probation and parole personnel.

Availability of Social Work Graduates for Probation/Parole ⁹

To what extent are qualified graduates becoming available for recruitment to probation and parole agencies? This section will describe study findings on the number of trained practitioners produced by graduate schools of social work over the past 2 years and their rate of recruitment to probation/parole.

Undergraduate Programs. Relatively few academic institutions offer an undergraduate degree program in social work. A recent listing shows 190 undergraduate departments of colleges and univer-

⁹ "It is a startling fact that today no one knows how many social workers are needed to staff the programs already authorized. Even though precise figures are lacking, the picture is dismal. There are many more positions than social workers to fill them." Wilbur J. Cohen, "The Role of the Federal Government in Expanding Social Work Manpower," *Health, Education, and Welfare Indicators*, March 1965, p. 9.

sities "offering courses with social welfare content." ¹⁰ Undergraduate courses are generally located in departments of sociology and sociology/anthropology. Only about a fourth (46) of the departments listed are described as social work, pre-social work, social welfare, or social service. The diversity of undergraduate courses and programs makes it difficult to assess the number of students who graduate from a degree program in social work. The task is further complicated by the absence of clear criteria about what constitutes an undergraduate social work program.

The wide variety of social welfare offerings as well as the variety of methods used by the 190 (undergraduate) member institutions in accounting for their student enrollment makes comparable statistical reporting very difficult. ¹¹

Graduate Programs. The master's degree in social work is widely acknowledged as that which would professionally qualify one for social work. At the time of this survey, there were 58 accredited schools of social work in the United States that offered the master's degree. ¹² Fifty of these schools (86 percent) responded to the project mail questionnaire of approximately 10 pages. Questionnaire items were highly structured and precoded. Approximately two-thirds of the questionnaires were filled out by the dean or director; the rest were completed by respondents in other administrative or teaching positions of the school. ¹³

The 50 graduate schools of social work from which data were drawn for this report are located in 31 States and the District of Columbia. Their regional distribution is shown in table 15.

TABLE 15.—Location of Responding Social Work Schools by Region

Region	Number of schools	Return rate
		Percent
New England	4	80
Middle Atlantic	9	75
East North Central	10	91
West North Central	7	100
South Atlantic	7	88
East South Central	1	50
West South Central	5	100
Mountain	2	100
Pacific	5	83
Total	50	86

The graduate school of social work is located at a university and is usually an autonomous professional school. The master of social work program

¹⁰ See Council on Social Work Education, *Statistics on Social Work Education 1966* (New York: 1967), table 130, pp. 15-18.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 18.

¹² See Council on Social Work Education, *Graduate Professional Schools of Social Work in Canada and the U.S.A.* (New York: January 1965). Brandeis was excluded because it offered only the doctoral degree at the time of study. Puerto Rico was excluded because it could not be assigned to one of the 50 states and parallel data for manpower needs in Puerto Rican probation/parole were not available.

¹³ See appendix F for a copy of the questionnaire for graduate schools of social work.

requires 2 academic years of full-time training. Professional accreditation of the school is carried out through the Council on Social Work Education. Classroom courses and field experience are integral parts of the program.¹⁴

SOCIAL WORK GRADUATES IN THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1965-66. The total number of master's degree graduates from all schools of social work in the U.S. for the academic year 1965-66 was 3,653. No school awarded more than 200 degrees and the mean was 62.¹⁵

SIZE OF THE M.S.W. MANPOWER POOL FOR PROBATION/PAROLE. The total number of social work graduates may be regarded as the *maximum potential manpower pool* available for recruitment during the year to all positions for which the social work degree is considered qualification.¹⁶

Several factors substantially reduce the number of social work graduates that are likely to be available for recruitment to probation and parole positions. The most important of these is the competition for graduates from other practice fields and programs.¹⁷ The Bureau of Labor Statistics survey¹⁸ lists the following programs (*other than* programs providing court services for children and services to adult offenders) as employing 105,622 persons in social work positions in 1960: public assistance, other family services, noninstitutional child welfare, institutional child welfare, school, social work, rehabilitation services, medical social work in hospitals, medical social work in other health settings, psychiatric social work in hospitals, psychiatric social work in other health settings, services to aged in institutions, group work, community or-

ganization, teaching social work, and recreation programs.¹⁹ The National Commission for Social Work Careers estimates that 130,000 persons were employed in all social service positions in the U.S. as of 1967.²⁰

Disqualification by school evaluation is a second factor that is apt to reduce the social work manpower pool for probation/parole. Deans of social work schools considered about one-third, or 1,200, of their master's degree graduates in 1965-66 as not trained for practice in correctional settings.²¹ Whether or not these 1,200 social work graduates are objectively as well qualified for probation/parole practice as their fellow graduates is less relevant than is the likelihood that they will be encouraged to seek careers in other practice fields and disqualified from probation/parole through school evaluations and letters of reference.²²

A third factor that substantially reduces the pool of social work graduates available for probation/parole is the specialization interest and experience of students. An estimated total of 750 social work graduates in 1965-66 completed a year of field experience in a correctional agency during their 2 years of social work training.²³

Table 16 lists the five graduate social work schools that had a comparatively large share of master's degree students located in correctional agencies for field instruction during 1965-66. These five schools had a total of 143, or 12.7 percent, of their full-time students placed in correctional field agencies as of November 1, 1965.

¹⁴ See appendix D for further description of social work schools in the sample and population.

¹⁵ See *Statistics on Social Work Education*, *op. cit.*, table 206, p. 24, (excluding Puerto Rico). Project findings are virtually identical; they show a mean of 60 graduates from the schools in the U.S. that were accredited in time for the survey.

¹⁶ This assumes that no appreciable pool of trained social workers enters the labor market during the year from any source other than the graduate schools. An active recruitment of trained housewives could, for example, conceivably modify this condition.

¹⁷ It is assumed that the mobility of trained social workers already in the labor market is fairly evenly distributed from one practice field to another.

¹⁸ *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960*, *op. cit.*, p. 39. This study showed a personnel total of 115,799 in all programs. Two program categories clearly include probation/parole personnel: (1) court services for children, employing 4,923 persons (4.3 percent of the total); and (2) services to adult offenders, employing 5,254 persons (4.5 percent of the total).

For purposes of this analysis, the figures above probably underestimate probation/parole manpower in 1960 by a major factor. This underestimation derives from the fact that some probation/parole programs are not separately identifiable from the BLS survey and are apparently included under broader categories (e.g., juvenile parole under noninstitutional child welfare work). An overestimation derives from the fact that some programs other than probation/parole are included under "services to adult offenders" (e.g., adult correctional institution personnel). See *ibid.*, pp. 119-123.

¹⁹ Some authorities prefer to exclude personnel in "recreation programs" from discussion of social work manpower, thus reducing the total by 10,448 in 1960. See U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Closing the Gap in Social Work Manpower, Report of the Departmental Task Force on Social Work Education and Manpower* (Washington, D.C.: 1965), table 9, p. 34. See also National Commission for Social Work Careers of the National Association of Social Workers, *Manpower—A Community Responsibility* (New York: 1968), p. 58.

²⁰ See *Manpower—A Community Responsibility*, *op. cit.*, p. 58. This figure apparently excludes recreation workers.

²¹ Based upon school responses to the following questionnaire item: "Approximately what proportion of these students (awarded a master's degree through your school this academic year) are trained so they can practice in correctional settings?"

²² Disqualification from corrections by school evaluation may relate to the fact that about 60 percent of social work students are women. See *Statistics on Social Work Education 1966*, *op. cit.*, table 205, p. 23.

²³ This figure is based on school responses regarding the number of first and second year master's degree students with fieldwork placements in probation/parole agencies, correctional institutions, and "other correctional agencies."

Data from the Council on Social Work Education indicate a somewhat smaller figure of approximately 600 master's degree students in correctional field placements during the academic year 1965-66 among 60 schools. This figure is derived as follows: 547 students already in correctional field placements as of November 1965, plus approximately 60 students from the pool of those in combined fields and those not yet assigned (in proportion to the existing distribution of 7.5 percent in correctional field placements). See *Statistics on Social Work Education 1965* (New York: 1966), table 255, p. 28.

TABLE 16.—Five Schools of Social Work With a Large Share of Master's Degree Students in Correctional Field Placements, November 1965^a

Graduate school of social work	Students in correctional field practice		Rank among schools—number of M.S.W. students
	Number of students	Rank among schools	
University of Michigan.....	37	1	2
University of California, Berkeley.....	34	2	3
University of Washington	29	3	8
University of Wisconsin, Milwaukee.....	22	4	28.5
Tulane University.....	21	5	7

^a Data are drawn from Council on Social Work Education, *Statistics on Social Work Education 1965* (New York: 1966), table 255, p. 28. Puerto Rico not included.

Table 17 lists the five largest social work schools that had a comparatively small share of master's degree students located in correctional agencies for field instruction during 1965–66. These five schools had a total of 51, or 3.9 percent, of their full-time students placed in correctional field agencies as of November 1, 1965.

TABLE 17.—Five Largest Schools of Social Work With a Small Share of Master's Degree Students in Correctional Field Placements, November 1965^a

Graduate school of school work	Students in correctional field practice		Rank among schools—number of M.S.W. students
	Number of students	Rank among schools	
Columbia University.....	10	18.5	1
University of Chicago.....	3	44	4
New York University.....	19	7	5
Fordham University.....	17	10.5	6
Florida State University..	2	48	9

^a Data are drawn from Council on Social Work Education, *Statistics on Social Work Education 1965* (New York: 1966), table 255, p. 28. Puerto Rico not included.

The 750 social work graduates with fieldwork experience in corrections may be regarded as the yearly manpower pool with a likely potential for recruitment to probation/parole. Even this pool of 1965–66 graduates with *likely recruitment potential* must be further reduced for two reasons. First, almost all of these graduates have also completed a year of field experience in agencies other than corrections. It is as likely, then, that they will pursue their specialization interests and experience in other fields as that they will do so in corrections. The graduate pool with high potential for recruitment to corrections is thus halved to 375.

A further reduction occurs because probation and parole must compete with other correctional agencies for the limited pool of 375 annual social work graduates (in 1965–66) who are likely to pursue their specialization into the correctional field.

It is estimated that about two-thirds of the social work graduates recruited to corrections take positions in probation and parole agencies. About one-fourth take jobs in training schools and other correctional institutions.²⁴ The remainder go into various other programs, such as work with street

²⁴ A companion volume will analyze parallel data on manpower and education for correctional institution systems.

gangs and agencies such as the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, the John Howard Association, and the Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children.

Reports from social work deans furnish the distribution of the 375 recent M.S.W. graduates who were likely to be recruited into corrections during 1965–66. As table 18 shows, the recent graduate is most likely to take a position as a probation/parole officer if he goes into the correctional field.

TABLE 18.—Positions Usually Filled by Students of Social Work Schools Who Go Into Corrections Upon Graduation^a

Position usually filled by M.S.W. graduates:	Percent of social work schools
Probation or parole officer.....	70
Supervisor or administrator in probation and parole	48
Staff member in correctional institution	46
Supervisor or administrator in correctional institution	32
Other correctional position	28

^a Data are drawn from responses of social work deans concerning "the types of positions usually filled by those of your students who go into corrections upon graduation from the master's program."

The distribution of correctional personnel provides a second basis for estimating the proportion of graduates likely to be recruited into probation/parole rather than other correctional positions. Table 19 shows the approximate number of persons in the types of agencies and positions included in the Bureau of Labor Statistics survey of social welfare manpower in 1960.

TABLE 19.—Estimated Distribution of Personnel Employed in Correctional Agencies and Positions Classifiable as Social Work,^a End of 1965

	Number	Percent
Probation and parole ^b	26,633	68.1
Correctional institutions ^c	9,500	24.3
Other correctional agency or position ^d	3,000	7.7
Total	39,133	100.1

^a See Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960* (New York: National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., undated), pp. 119–124. Departures from the BLS classification are as noted.

^b Figures are based on project data for probation/parole officers, supervisors, administrators, and training officers. See tables 5, 6, 7, and 8 above.

^c This is probably a conservative figure. It is based on the following estimates for staff of all 1,242 correctional institution facilities in the U. S., excluding personnel in local jails: (1) approximately 4,550 classification and general counseling staff; (2) approximately 2,800 of the diagnostic and treatment staff for clinical services; (3) approximately 2,150 of the superintendents, wardens, research workers, social service and cottage-life supervisors, and other administrative positions designated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. See Volume 2 of this series on Correctional Institutions.

^d This is a tentative figure and is not supported by concrete data.

According to these data, probation and parole agencies throughout the country could expect to recruit approximately 250 new social workers in 1965–66 from the pool of 375 graduates likely to go into corrections. These 250 graduates comprise 6.8 percent of all 3,653 M.S.W. graduates for the academic year.²⁵

²⁵ A parallel analysis based on fieldwork data from the Council on Social Work Education would yield somewhat smaller figures: 303 graduates for corrections, of which 202 would be available for probation/parole. Thus, probation/parole would recruit 5.5 percent of all M.S.W. graduates for the academic year.

This pool of social work graduates is sufficient to fill about one-eighth of the official manpower vacancies in probation/parole at the beginning of 1966. It would fill about 60 percent of the official vacancies for supervisors and administrators.²⁶ It is less than the number needed to meet the manpower requirements for additional staff as reported by the executive of a single large probation/parole agency.

SOCIAL WORK GRADUATES IN THE ACADEMIC YEAR 1966-67. The most recent available figures indicate that the total pool of qualified personnel produced by graduate schools of social work expanded by about 250 graduates, or 6.8 percent, from the academic year 1965-66 to 1966-67.²⁷ The number of accredited graduate schools in the U.S. was increased to 63, and the total number of M.S.W. graduates rose to approximately 3,900 (excluding Puerto Rico).²⁸

There was an expansion of about 10 percent in the number of social work graduates with special-

²⁶ Criminologist Daniel Glaser recommends that the best staff use for master's degree graduates from social work or psychology is as case supervisors. See his "The Prospect for Corrections," in Charles S. Prigmore (ed.) *Manpower and Training for Corrections* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1966), p. 31.

It may be argued that a policy which minimized job performance and experience as criteria for promotion is likely to be dysfunctional to staff morale and recruitment.

²⁷ The increase from 1964-65 to 1965-66 was 475 graduates, or 14.9 percent (excluding Puerto Rico).

²⁸ The National Commission for Social Work Careers re-

alized interest and experience in corrections.²⁹ Approximately 825 master's degree graduates in 1966-67 had obtained student field experience in a correctional agency during their social work training. Probation and parole could expect to recruit about 275 of these graduates.

The proportion of social work students that obtained field experience in corrections remained constant over the 2 academic years.³⁰ The increase in

ports 64 schools in 1967 and 3,969 graduates for 1966-67. These figures apparently include Puerto Rico and Brandeis. See *Manpower—A Community Responsibility*, *op. cit.*, p. 58.

The Council on Social Work Education lists 63 accredited schools offering a master's program as of November 1, 1966, including Puerto Rico. See *Statistics on Social Work Education, 1966*, *op. cit.*, table 103, p. 12.

²⁹ Figures reported by the Council on Social Work Education show 617 master's degree students assigned to correctional agencies for fieldwork as of November 1, 1966, compared with 547 students a year earlier. See *Statistics on Social Work Education 1966*, *op. cit.*, table 255, p. 30 and *Statistics on Social Work Education 1965*, *op. cit.*, table 255, p. 28. These figures do not include students not yet assigned to field instruction for the academic year and students in combined fields.

³⁰ Master's students assigned to correctional field placements constituted 6.6 percent of all students as of November 1, 1966 and 6.7 percent as of November 1, 1965. See *Statistics on Social Work Education 1966*, *op. cit.*, table 255, p. 30, and *Statistics on Social Work Education 1965*, *op. cit.*, table 255, p. 28.

The adjusted totals are 7.5 percent for both 1966 and 1965. These latter percentages eliminate the students that will not be in field instruction and prorate those not yet assigned and in combined fields.

CHART V.—Manpower Needs in Probation/Parole During 1966-1967 and the Availability of Qualified Personnel for Recruitment

Work role	Additional manpower needed ^b	Qualified personnel available ^a		
		Maximum pool ^c	Likely pool ^d	Expected recruitment ^e
Probation/parole officers:				
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	1,650	3,650	750	250
Executive assessment, beginning 1966	5,600	3,650	750	250
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	13,500	3,900	825	275
Probation/parole administrators and supervisors:				
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	400	3,650	750	250
Executive assessment, beginning 1966	1,975	3,650	750	250
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	2,800	3,900	825	275
Probation/parole training officers:				
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	75	3,650	750	250
Executive assessment, beginning 1966	1,175	3,650	750	250
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	1,525	3,900	825	275
Total professional staff ^f :				
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	2,125	3,650	750	250
Executive assessment, beginning 1966	8,750	3,650	750	250
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	17,825	3,900	825	275

^a Qualified by the criterion of executive judgment. Social work was the university area strongly advocated for a degree by probation/parole executives in order to qualify personnel for each position. See table 9 above.

^b The number needed in addition to those employed in 1,647 probation/parole agencies at the end of 1965. All numbers are rounded to the nearest 25. See tables 5, 6, 7, and 8 above.

^c The total number of master's degree graduates from the U.S. schools of social work during the relevant academic year. See "Social Work Graduates in the Academic Year 1965-66" and "Social Work Graduates in the Academic Year 1966-67" above.

^d The total number of social work graduates who had completed a year of specialized field experience in a correctional agency. See "Size of the M.S.W. Manpower Pool for Probation/Parole," above.

^e The total number of social work graduates with correctional field experience who were apt to be recruited to probation/parole rather than another practice field or another type of correctional agency. See "Size of the M.S.W. Manpower Pool for Probation/Parole," above.

^f Includes probation/parole officers, administrators, supervisors, and training staff.

graduate specialists therefore depended mainly on new schools and an expanded student body.

Most social work schools (66 percent) reported to this project that the number of their master's students enrolled in corrections programs for 1966-67 would be about the same as that for the previous academic year. One-third of the schools (34 percent) expected an increased number of students in field-work or classroom courses in corrections. No school reported a decrease. The increase in graduate specialists among established schools is not evenly distributed but concentrated in a minority of social work schools.

Chart V summarizes findings on the number of

trained social workers available in relation to manpower needs of probation/parole during 1966 and 1967.⁸¹

It is apparent that the available pool of social work graduates is far too small to narrow appreciably the manpower gap in probation/parole. The following chapter will, therefore, consider the feasibility of expanding this pool.

⁸¹ As stated earlier, this analysis assumes that the number of trained social workers leaving probation/parole during the year for other fields of practice is about the same as the number being recruited into probation/parole from other practice fields.

Feasibility of Expanding the Pool of Social Work Graduates for Probation/Parole

As was shown in the previous chapter, social work schools provide the professional training that probation/parole executives consider most appropriate for practice in their agencies. It was also shown that the pool of social work graduates available for probation/parole is but a small proportion of the manpower needed in the field. This chapter will consider whether it is feasible for social work programs to increase substantially the number of graduates who are likely to be recruited into probation/parole.

The feasibility of social work expansion in relation to probation/parole depends first on conditions within the schools. Do the social work schools concur that the M.S.W. is the most appropriate educational standard for probation/parole practice? If they do concur, are they prepared to expand their programs, especially the ones that produce graduates with student experience in probation/parole? Do the educational resources exist and can they be mobilized for major expansion?

Feasibility of social work expansion also depends on outside support from the academic and professional community. Is the M.S.W. generally endorsed as an educational standard for probation/parole? Would specialized social work training for this field be acceptable to key academic and professional groups? Without a consensus on these points, social work schools are unlikely to consider, or be able to implement, expanded programs for probation/parole.

The next section describes study findings on conditions within the social work schools as related to expansion for probation/parole. It is followed by an analysis of consensus and support among strategically located academic and professional groups.

Conditions Within Graduate Schools of Social Work

Concurrence of Schools and Agencies on Educational Standards. Expanding the pool of social work graduates for probation/parole depends in part on whether or not the schools concur with probation/parole executives that social work training is the appropriate standard for this field. Expansion is unlikely if there is no agreement on educational standards for recruitment between those who train and those who hire.

Social work deans strongly advocate social work training for probation/parole personnel. As table 20 shows, almost all social work deans maintain this standard for each work role in probation/parole.

TABLE 20.—*Education Recommended by Social Work Deans to Qualify Personnel for Probation/Parole Practice*

Work role	University area recommended ^a	Percent of deans ^b
Probation/parole officer (adult caseload).	Social work	97.1
Probation/parole officer (juvenile caseload).	Social work.....	97.1
Probation/parole administrator	Social work.....	79.4
Three probation/parole roles combined.	Social work.....	93.9

^a University area "strongly advocated" for a degree from among 11 choices.

^b Based on responses of deans from 50 social work schools. Percentage excludes nonrespondents to the particular item.

Faculty and students provide two additional sources of educational standards by which social work schools can be characterized. These groups were surveyed to determine the applicability of the M.S.W. standard to the "real life" choice confronting prospective students and employees. Is the master's degree program worth the 2 years of study that is generally required? Does the degree program produce a more qualified practitioner than would 2 years of agency work experience?

As can be seen in table 21, social work faculty throughout the country overwhelmingly subscribe to the standard of an M.S.W. for probation/parole officers. By contrast, faculty who teach courses in corrections, delinquency, and criminology in other schools and departments are evenly split on the standard of a master's degree from their own programs.

A similar disparity is revealed when responses from student groups in social work and public administration are compared. About half the applicants to schools of social work are convinced that their master's degree program produces a superior probation/parole officer. Almost 90 percent of the applicants to public administration, however, believe that 2 years of probation/parole experience produces a better officer than does the public administration program.

By the time of graduation, 85 percent of the social work students subscribe to the standard of an M.S.W. for the probation/parole officer. About half the public administration graduates believe their M.P.A. program is better preparation for the probation/parole officer than are 2 years of agency work experience.

These findings are summarized in table 21.

TABLE 21.—Recruitment Standard for Probation/Parole Officers Among Faculty and Student Groups ^a

Source of standard	Recruitment standard	
	Master's degree from own program ^b	B.A. plus 2 years' agency experience
Faculty groups:	Percent	Percent
Social work (casework) ^c	92.7	7.3
Corrections, delinquency, and criminology ^d	51.5	48.5
Student groups:		
Applicants—social work ^e	51.8	48.2
Applicants—public administration ^f	11.5	88.5
Graduating students—social work ^g	85.7	14.3
Graduating students—public administration ^h	55.5	44.5

^a Data are drawn from responses to a questionnaire item that read as follows: "There are two applicants for a position as probation (parole) officer. One applicant has the master's degree from a program such as yours and no paid agency experience. A second applicant has a B.A. plus 2 years of paid experience in a similar agency. Which applicant should be hired?"

^b Percentages calculated on responses to the two given choices. Responses of "indifferent" were prorated.

^c Data are based on responses of 160 faculty members teaching casework courses in 50 graduate schools of social work. A replicate survey yielded very similar results.

^d Data are based on responses of 48 faculty members teaching corrections and related courses in 37 schools and departments of public administration, corrections, and sociology.

^e Data are based on responses of 509 applicants to three schools of social work in different cities.

^f Data are based on responses of 38 applicants to a graduate school of public administration.

^g Data are based on responses of 113 graduates from three schools.

^h Data are based on responses of 13 graduates from one school.

These findings clearly indicate that social work faculty and students, as well as deans, endorse their M.S.W. program as the appropriate educational standard for probation/parole personnel.

Legitimacy of Specialized M.S.W. Programs in Corrections. Probation/parole recruited approximately 250 M.S.W.'s from the graduating class of 1965–66 (and about 10 percent more the following year). This group was part of a pool of 750 graduates with specialized interest and student field experience in corrections.

A primary target for expansion of social work graduates to probation/parole is the pool of social work graduates with specialized training in corrections. There are three reasons for focusing on an expanded program for this group: (1) They are most likely to pursue careers in probation/parole; (2) they are generally considered superior candidates for recruitment by probation/parole executives; (3) they are most apt to be knowledgeable about practice with offenders.¹

Most social work deans believe that the M.S.W. program should include an extensive specialized course of study in corrections. Three-fifths of the deans (61.0 percent) expressed their approval of the following program: "Master of Social Work programs with a 'concentration' (12 or more credit

¹ Some of the special knowledge areas for the social worker in probation are identified in Merritt Gilman and Alice M. Low, *Training for Juvenile Probation Officers*, Children's Bureau Publication No. 398, 1962.

hours) in corrections."² Thirty-nine percent of the social work deans disapproved of such programs at the university or approved of them only as special noncredit programs.

These findings indicate that most social work deans recognize that the way in which their schools will produce qualified graduates for correctional positions is through specialized M.S.W. programs in corrections.

Readiness of Social Work Schools to Expand Student Training for Work with Offenders. Social work schools are ideologically committed to training students for probation and parole. They adhere to an educational standard prescribing the M.S.W. for probation/parole practice. And their deans generally legitimate a specialized M.S.W. program in corrections.

A question that arises is whether the social work schools are prepared to translate this ideological commitment into expanded programs. As table 22 shows, almost all social work schools report that they are ready for expansion *if additional funds are made available*. Forty-six schools (95.8 percent) are prepared to employ additional faculty for training students to work with offenders. Almost as many schools (93.8 percent) are prepared to use additional scholarship funds for training students to work with offenders. More than half the schools (52.1 percent) are prepared to expand their physical facilities for training students to work with offenders. And about one-fourth of the schools (27.1 percent) are ready to assume responsibility for a Crime and Delinquency Training Center. Only one school of social work (2.1 percent) reports that it is not interested in Federal funds for additional training of students to work with offenders.³

TABLE 22.—Readiness of Social Work Schools to Expand Student Training for Work With Offenders if Federal Funds Are Made Available

Training resource earmarked for work with offenders	Percent of schools	
	Prepared to use funds	Not prepared to use funds
Salaries for additional faculty.....	95.8	4.2
Scholarships to students.....	93.8	6.2
Expanded physical facilities.....	52.1	47.9
Crime and Delinquency Training Center responsible to school.....	27.1	72.9
Total schools.....	97.9	2.1
Number.....	(47)	(1)

In summary, graduate schools of social work are apparently willing and ready to expand their programs and their number of graduates for work with offenders if additional training resources are made available to them.

² Almost nine out of 10 (86.7 percent) college presidents and deans of professional schools other than social work approved of this as a degree program at the university. These findings will be described later in the chapter in the section on "Conditions within the University and Professional Complex."

³ By way of comparison, 28.2 percent of the departments of clinical psychology (Ph.D.), 19.2 percent of the psychiatric residency centers, and 2.5 percent of the law schools report that they are not interested in Federal funds for this purpose.

Training Resources Needed by Social Work Schools for Expanded Programs in Corrections. Can the social work schools mobilize vital training resources for expanded correctional programs if funds are provided? This depends in part on the extent of expansion. Project findings suggest that additional money will alleviate some problems but not all. Almost two-fifths of the schools (39 percent) report that for the academic year 1965-66, their classroom and field courses in corrections were not hindered by lack of funds.

Virtually all social work schools report that their correctional programs were hindered by faculty overload and limited space. In most instances, these two difficulties could be solved directly by additional funds.

In about half the schools, good faculty for correctional courses were in short supply, as were suitable agencies for student field training. Both problems could be somewhat alleviated by a larger school budget. However, they also require long-range solutions that involve recruitment and training of new faculty and a more active campaign for additional training agencies.⁴

There is apparently no shortage of high quality social work students available for training in corrections.

Findings on needed training resources are summarized in table 23.

TABLE 23.—*Training Resources Needed by Social Work Schools for Programs in Corrections*^a

Needed Resource:	Percent of schools ^b
Lower faculty workload	83.3
Space	77.4
Funds	61.0
Suitable agencies for field placements	55.0
Good faculty	47.4
Good students	10.7
Total schools lacking at least one training resource	90.7

^a Data are based on responses of 50 schools concerning the factors that hindered them in planning or organizing fieldwork or classroom courses in corrections for the academic year 1965-66.

^b Percentages exclude nonrespondents to the particular item.

Conditions Within the University and Professional Complex

The extent to which social work schools are able to expand their educational programs for corrections depends in part on the support or opposition of a number of strategic groups within the univer-

⁴ The problem of providing suitable agency training facilities for social work students can only be mentioned here. It is complicated by the fact that social work has no clear objective standards about what constitutes a suitable training agency. Unlike clinical psychology, social work has no professional machinery to determine agency suitability. Individual schools of social work set their own "standards" and make their own assessments.

For data on the willingness of correctional agencies to provide fieldwork training facilities, see table 27.

sity and professional complex.⁵ Major expansion of social work programs is not likely to occur, even if financial subsidies are made available by foundations or the government, unless these programs are acceptable to key groups in the university and professional communities.

Social Work Training for Probation/Parole—Consensus and Divergence on Standards. Do key academic and professional groups endorse social work training as the appropriate educational standard for probation/parole personnel?

Almost all key groups that were surveyed by the project "strongly advocate" social work training to qualify personnel as probation/parole officers. As table 24 shows, social work training ranks highest among top executives of each academic and agency group except law school deans.⁶

TABLE 24.—*Education Recommended by Academic and Criminal Justice Executives to Qualify Personnel as Probation/Parole Officers*

Source of standard	Number Surveyed	University area recommended ^a
Academic executives:		
College presidents and department chairmen	511	Social work
Directors—clinical psychology	44	Social work
Directors—psychiatric residency	184	Social work
Deans—law	83	Corrections ^b
Directors—Crime and Delinquency Centers	26	Social work
Criminal justice executives (other than executives of probation/parole agencies):		
Correctional institution systems	93	Social work
Law enforcement systems	108	Social work

^a More executives advocate this university area for a degree than any other from among 11 choices.

^b Social work ranked second in the selection of law school deans.

Educational standards for probation/parole personnel are advocated by a number of influential organizations. The National Council on Crime and Delinquency gives priority to advanced social work training (M.S.W.) as educational qualification for the probation/parole officer,⁷ supervisor, and administrator.⁸

The Special Task Force on Correctional Standards, appointed by the staff of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration

⁵ It is of interest to note that two social work schools that produce a disproportionately large number of correctional specialists are located in Wisconsin (Milwaukee and Madison). The correctional system of that State has actively recruited M.S.W.'s to both probation/parole and correctional institutions since 1949, first under Russell Oswald and more recently under Sanger Powers.

⁶ See appendixes A to E for a description of academic institutions and Criminal Justice agencies in the sample and population.

⁷ National Council on Crime and Delinquency, *Standards and Guides for Adult Probation* (New York: 1962), p. 19; *Standards for Selection of Probation and Parole Personnel*, mimeographed, March 1966, p. 4.

⁸ *Standards and Guides for Adult Probation*, op. cit., p. 22; *Standards for Selection of Probation and Parole Personnel*, op. cit., p. 5.

of Justice, gives priority to advanced social work training (M.S.W.) "or comparable study in correction, criminology, psychology, sociology, or a related field of social science." This broad set of educational standards is advocated for the probation officer, supervisor, and administrator in probation and parole.⁹

The Task Force Report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice sets its optimum educational standard for the probation/parole officer as requiring "2 years of graduate study."¹⁰

The U.S. Children's Bureau has long advocated graduate social work training as educational qualification for the juvenile probation officer and administrator.¹¹ A workshop report of the Bureau also recommended graduate social work training for the juvenile probation officer but emphasized the need for additional materials from the delinquency field.¹²

The Arden House Conference of June 24-26, 1964, set no specific level or university area of training as qualifying personnel for probation/parole.¹³ However, a prominent participant of the conference, Daniel Glaser, advocated a B.A. degree for the probation/parole officer without indicating any particular university area.¹⁴ Glaser's educational standards for the probation/parole supervisor are a master's degree in social work or psychology.¹⁵

The Federal Probation Officers Association considers the probation/parole officer educationally qualified with 2 years of graduate training in social work or one of the social sciences.¹⁶

The U.S. Department of Labor classifies probation and parole officers under the professional category "Social Workers."¹⁷

In summary, graduate social work training for most probation/parole personnel is an educational standard that is widely endorsed. Virtually all key

groups and organizations advocate a social work degree to qualify the probation/parole officer and supervisor. No identifiable educational standard is advocated as a preferable alternative by professional organizations or substantial numbers of academic executives.

EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS FOR THE PROBATION/PAROLE ADMINISTRATOR. There is far less consensus regarding educational standards for the administrator in probation and parole. Most academic groups advocate training in public administration for this role, as do executives of correctional institution systems and law enforcement departments. This standard seems to reflect a primary concern with the managerial responsibilities of the probation/parole administrator. Social work training is advocated by probation/parole executives, deans of social work schools, the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, the Special Task Force on Correctional Standards¹⁸ and the U.S. Children's Bureau. This standard seems to reflect a primary concern with the responsibility of the probation/parole administrator for substantive practice matters.

Among academic and agency executives, deans of social work schools are the only group which concurs with probation/parole executives that social work training best qualifies personnel as probation/parole administrators. From table 25 one can see that public administration generally ranks highest for administrative roles in probation/parole.

TABLE 25.—Education Recommended by Academic and Criminal Justice Executives to Qualify Personnel as Probation/Parole Administrators

Source of standard	Number surveyed	University area recommended
Academic executives:		
College presidents and department chairmen	511	Public administration
Directors—clinical psychology (Ph. D.)	44	Public administration
Directors—psychiatric residency	184	(*)
Deans—law	83	Corrections
Directors—Crime and Delinquency Centers	26	Public administration
Criminal justice executives (other than executives of probation/parole agencies):		
Correctional institution systems	93	Public administration
Law enforcement systems	108	Public administration

* Item omitted for this population.

Findings suggest widespread academic and professional support for a national policy that would expand social work training programs designed to produce a substantial pool of probation/parole practitioners. However, a policy to expand social work training for probation/parole administrators is likely to meet with opposition from many important academic and professional groups.

Legitimacy of Specialized M.S.W. Programs in Corrections. It was suggested earlier that a primary

⁹ National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States," *op. cit.*, pp. 268 and 271.

¹⁰ The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: Corrections* (Washington: 1967), p. 95.

¹¹ See, for example, their *Standards for Specialized Courts Dealing with Children*, Children's Bureau Publication No. 346, 1954, p. 86. The standard of graduate social work training for juvenile probation work was shared by two other organizations cooperating in this report: The National Council of Juvenile Court Judges and the National Probation and Parole Association (later the National Council on Crime and Delinquency). See also Bernard Russell, "Current Training Needs in the Field of Juvenile Delinquency," *Juvenile Delinquency Facts and Facets*, No. 8 (Washington, D.C.: Children's Bureau, 1960), p. 3.

¹² Gilman and Low, *Training for Juvenile Probation Officers*, *op. cit.*, pp. 34-36.

¹³ See "Decisions of the Conference," in Prigmore, *op. cit.*, pp. xi-xxv.

¹⁴ *Op. cit.*, p. 31.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*

¹⁶ Federal Probation Officers Association, *Professional Standards Endorsed by the Federal Probation Officers Association*, April 1965, p. 6.

¹⁷ See *Occupational Outlook Handbook*, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin 1450, 1966-67 edition, p. 269.

¹⁸ Social work or "comparable study" in a related field of social science.

target for expansion of social work graduates to probation/parole is the pool of students with specialized interests and experience in corrections. Do universities and professional schools legitimate a specialized social work degree program in this field?

Data in table 26 shows overwhelming academic approval for an M.S.W. program that includes extensive study in corrections.

TABLE 26.—*Extent to Which Universities and Professional Schools Legitimate Master of Social Work Programs With a Concentration in Corrections^a*

Academic population	Approve as degree programs		Do not approve as degree programs ^b	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
College presidents and department chairmen	87.6	(296)	12.4	(42)
Directors—clinical psychology (Ph.D.)	90.9	(30)	9.1	(3)
Directors—psychiatric residency	83.2	(129)	16.8	(26)
Deans—law	87.7	(64)	12.3	(9)
Total academic respondents ^c	86.6	(519)	13.4	(80)

^a Twelve or more credit hours in a defined program of study.

^b Includes respondents who disapprove of these programs at the university and respondents who approve of them only as special noncredit programs.

^c Comparable figures for social work deans are 61 percent approve (N=25) and 39 percent do not approve (N=16).

The M.S.W. program with a specialization in corrections received more widespread academic approval than any of five other proposed specialization programs in criminal justice. LL.B. (J.D.) programs with a concentration in criminal law were approved by 84.0 percent (or 494) of the same academic respondents. Undergraduate programs with a concentration in police science were approved by 56.2 percent (or 376).

These findings suggest that failure to institute social work degree programs that are designed to produce correctional specialists cannot be attributed to lack of academic sanction. A national policy to inaugurate such programs would receive strong sup-

TABLE 27.—*Agency Willingness to Provide Fieldwork Training Facilities for Social Work Students*

Correctional system	Willing to provide facilities for social work	
	Percent	Number
Probation/parole ^a	81.0	(81)
Correctional institutions ^b	77.5	(55)
Total systems	79.5 ^c	(136)

^a Data are based on responses of 100 major probation/parole systems to an open-ended question that asked them to identify the university departments, if any, from which they were willing to accept students and provide facilities for fieldwork training. Sociology ranked second and psychology third with 52 percent and 32 percent, respectively.

^b Data are based on responses of 71 major correctional institution systems. Psychology ranked second and sociology third with 59.2 percent and 46.5 percent, respectively.

^c Sociology ranked second with 49.7 percent (N=85) and psychology third with 43.3 percent (N=74).

port from virtually all university presidents, department chairmen, and deans of professional schools.

Active Support of M.S.W. Programs in Corrections. Can the ideological support of academic and professional groups for M.S.W. programs in corrections be translated into expanded programs? Two sets of findings give evidence of active support for such programs from key professional and academic groups.

As can be seen in table 27, virtually all correctional agencies are willing to provide fieldwork facilities for training of social work students. Social work ranked far higher in this regard than did any other school or department of the university.

A second set of findings also reflects active support for correctional training programs in schools of social work. Table 28 draws on the actual experience of social work schools for the academic year 1965–1966. It shows that the schools were usually aided in their correctional training programs by each of six key academic and professional groups.

TABLE 28.—*Extent of Support for Correctional Training Programs in Schools of Social Work^a*

Academic groups:	Percent of schools ^b	
	Support	Opposition
Personnel in university administration	95.7	4.3
Personnel from other departments of the university	88.2	11.8
Personnel within own school	87.1	12.9
Faculty senate or university committees	80.0	20.0
Professional groups:		
Council on Social Work Education and its related committees	88.5	11.5
Personnel in correctional agencies in the community	86.2	13.8

^a Data are based on responses of 31 schools concerning the groups whose actions and attitudes helped or hindered them in planning or organizing fieldwork or classroom courses in corrections for the academic year 1965–1966.

^b Percentage excludes nonrespondents to the particular item.

Active support is available to social work schools for expanding their correctional training programs. They can generally rely on assistance from university faculty and administration, the Council on Social Work Education, and correctional agencies in the community.

The findings indicate that social work schools are probably able to expand substantially their programs and pool of graduates for probation/parole, *provided* that: (1) Additional funds are made available for this purpose and (2) appropriate priorities are established within the schools to train students for work with offenders.

Chapter 5 will discuss estimations of the amount of money needed for expansion. It will also consider the policy changes that would be required for social work to fulfill its mandate to educate personnel for probation/parole practice.

Expanding the Pool of Social Work Graduates for Probation/Parole: Costs and Strategies

Various strategies have been proposed to meet the need for additional qualified manpower in probation/parole. This chapter will appraise three strategies designed to increase the pool of social work graduates for recruitment to probation/parole. The cost of training additional social work graduates for this field varies with the approach selected for expansion.

The first strategy entails a general expansion of social work education to meet the manpower needs of all its practice fields. It assumes that probation/parole will share in this expansion by recruiting social work graduates at about the same rate as it does now. It is estimated that at least \$450 million is required to implement a strategy of this kind.

The second strategy is designed to selectively expand social work programs that produce professional specialists for probation/parole. It assumes that additional graduates from these programs will be recruited to probation/parole. This strategy would cost between \$31 and \$259 million.

The third strategy involves a change in school policy and program priorities, with schools expanding at their current rate. It assumes that probation/parole will receive its "fair share" of graduates in proportion to other practice fields served by the profession. No additional funds are involved beyond the costs of current school expansion.

The approximate cost of training a social worker is provided below. It is followed by analysis of the three strategies for expanding the pool of graduates for probation/parole.

School Costs per M.S.W. Graduate. The average cost of producing an M.S.W. graduate is estimated at \$14,500.¹ The school cost is approximately

¹ This figure includes the budget of the social work school and scholarships to students. It does not include costs borne by the university—which are at least partially offset by tuition fees.

It is quite possible that the average cost per student is considerably reduced by the greater "efficiency" of large schools and established schools. This latter factor is apt to be offset, however, by a higher proportion of senior faculty with higher salaries.

Earlier figures from an NIMH study showed that as of 1960-61, the yearly cost of training a psychiatric social worker was \$5,384, or \$10,768 for the 2-year M.S.W. See Training Branch, NIMH, *Survey of Funding and Expenditures for Training of Mental Health Personnel, 1960-61* (Washington, D.C.: January 1963), table 3, p. 5.

\$10,000, exclusive of student scholarships.² The average scholarship cost per social work student is approximately \$4,500 over the 2-year period of the M.S.W. program.³ This latter estimate is based on data reported to the project by schools of social work.⁴

Strategy 1—Expanding the General Pool of M.S.W. Graduates

The minimal manpower needs of probation/parole have been assessed as requiring 2,125 additional members of the professional staff. This figure represents the number of official vacancies or unfilled budgeted positions existing in probation/parole agencies.

Assuming that the current rate of recruitment remains stable, then about one M.S.W. graduate in 15 (6.8 percent) can be expected to take a job in probation/parole. Therefore, in order to recruit the minimal professional staff needed to fill *official vacancies*, it would be necessary to train over 31,000 additional social workers. The cost of producing this additional pool of 31,000 graduates is *approximately \$450 million*. An expansion of this magnitude would also provide 29,000 additional social workers to fill pressing manpower needs in fields other than probation/parole.

At the current rate of recruitment, it would be necessary to train 260,000 additional social work graduates in order to produce the 17,825 staff mem-

² The Council on Social Work Education budgetary estimate for new schools is \$175,290 to \$200,540 for a graduating class of 20 students (20 first-year students and 20 second-year students). These figures do not include capital outlays and other expenses of the university. They are considered to be conservative estimates and are currently under review by the Council. See their *Budgetary Estimate for New Schools* (mimeographed, August 10, 1967) and private communication from Arnulf M. Pins, Executive Director of the Council.

³ The proportion of full-time M.S.W. students who received some financial grant as of November 1, 1966 was 86.5 percent. See *Statistics on Social Work Education, 1966*, *op. cit.*, tables 255 and 256, pp. 30 and 31.

⁴ The proportion of M.S.W. students who received scholarship aid worth at least \$1,000 for the academic year 1965-66 was 73.4 percent (based on data reported by 47 schools); and the proportion who received scholarship aid worth at least \$3,600 for the same period was 21.7 percent (based on data reported by 43 schools).

bers required for probation/parole agencies to function "most effectively." The cost of training this additional pool of graduates is *almost \$4 billion*. An expansion of this magnitude would make available about 242,000 trained social workers for fields other than probation/parole.⁵

Chart VI shows the number and cost of additional social work graduates required to fill manpower needs in probation/parole. *These cost estimates assume that the current rate of graduate recruitment to probation/parole remains stable.*

Strategy 2—Expanding the Pool of M.S.W. Specialists for Probation/Parole

A second strategy would expand the number of social work graduates on a relatively small scale but greatly increase their rate of recruitment to probation/parole. This can be accomplished if the schools institute or expand special programs de-

⁵ This figure is apparently not unrealistic with respect to the manpower needs claimed for social work. "For programs in which agencies in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare are directly concerned, 100,000 more social workers with full professional education will be needed by 1970." *Manpower—A Community Responsibility*, op. cit., p. 57. (Italics in original.)

signed to train additional social work students for practice with offenders. A high proportion of graduates from these specialized programs could be expected to select jobs in probation/parole.

If social work schools were to adopt this policy, the cost of producing an added pool of graduate specialists to fill *minimal manpower needs* in probation/parole is approximately \$31 million. This figure assumes perfect success in recruiting every additional graduate to probation/parole.

The cost of producing a sufficient number of social work specialists for probation/parole agencies to function "most effectively" is \$259 million. This figure assumes perfect recruitment success and is based on the 17,825 additional professional staff members that probation/parole executives report they need for the most effective operation of their agencies.

Chart VII shows the cost of training additional social work graduates sufficient to meet the manpower needs of probation/parole. *These cost estimates assume that every additional M.S.W. graduate is recruited to probation/parole.*⁶

⁶ The cost estimates provided in chart VII should be increased by 50 percent if it is assumed that one-third of the additional graduates trained in specialized correctional programs will take jobs outside of probation/parole.

CHART VI.—Estimated Cost of Filling Manpower Needs in Probation/Parole With an Additional Pool of Social Work Graduates, Assuming Current Rate of Recruitment to Probation/Parole^a

Work role	Additional manpower needed ^b	Additional M.S.W. graduates needed ^c	Training costs ^d in millions of dollars
Probation/parole officers:			
Official vacancies, beginning 1966.....	1,650	24,090	349.3
Executive assessment, beginning 1966 ^e	5,600	81,760	1,185.5
Executive assessment, beginning 1967.....	13,500	197,100	2,858.0
Probation/parole administrators and supervisors:			
Official vacancies, beginning 1966.....	400	5,840	84.7
Executive assessment, beginning 1966.....	1,975	28,835	418.1
Executive assessment, beginning 1967.....	2,800	40,880	592.8
Probation/parole training officers:			
Official vacancies, beginning 1966.....	75	1,095	15.9
Executive assessment, beginning 1966.....	1,175	17,155	248.7
Executive assessment, beginning 1967.....	1,525	22,265	322.8
Total professional staff:			
Official vacancies, beginning 1966.....	2,125	31,025	449.9
Executive assessment, beginning 1966.....	8,750	127,750	1,852.4
Executive assessment, beginning 1967.....	17,825	260,245	3,773.6

^a The proportion of M. S. W. graduates recruited to probation/parole is approximately 6.8 percent.

^b The number needed in addition to those employed in 1,647 probation/parole agencies at the end of 1965. All numbers are rounded to the nearest 25. See tables 5, 6, 7, and 8 above.

^c For every 14.6 M.S.W. graduates, one is recruited to probation/parole.

^d The cost of producing an additional graduate is approximately \$14,500.

^e All executive assessments are based on the manpower need reported by probation/parole executives for the most effective operation of their agencies beyond the number actually employed at the end of 1965.

^f These figures may be compared with the 12,532 additional officers and supervisors needed in 1966 according to the Special Task Force on Correctional Standards of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice. The cost of filling this need with graduate social workers, which is the preferred standard of the Task Force, would be approximately \$2.65 billion. See National Council on Crime and Delinquency, "Correction in the United States—A Survey for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice," *Crime and Delinquency*, January 1967, pp. 240, 268, and 271.

CHART VII.—Estimated Cost of Filling Manpower Needs in Probation/Parole With an Additional Pool of Social Work Graduates, Assuming Perfect Recruitment Success^a

Work role	Additional manpower needed ^b	Training costs for additional M.S.W. graduates, ^c in millions of dollars
Probation/parole officers:		
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	1,650	23.9
Executive assessment, beginning 1966 ^d	5,600	81.2
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	13,500	195.8
Probation/parole administrators and supervisors:		
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	400	5.8
Executive assessment, beginning 1966	1,975	28.6
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	2,800	40.6
Probation/parole training officers:		
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	75	1.1
Executive assessment, beginning 1966	1,175	17.0
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	1,525	22.1
Total professional staff:		
Official vacancies, beginning 1966	2,125	30.8
Executive assessment, beginning 1966	8,750	126.8
Executive assessment, beginning 1967	17,825	258.5

^a Assuming every additional M.S.W. graduate is recruited to probation/parole.

^b The number needed in addition to those employed in 1,647 probation/parole agencies at the end of 1965. All numbers are rounded to the nearest 25. See tables 5, 6, 7, and 8 above.

^c The cost of producing an additional graduate is estimated at \$14,500.

^d All executive assessments are based on the manpower need reported by probation/parole executives for the most effective operation of their agencies beyond the number actually employed at the end of 1965.

^e The cost of training 12,532 social workers to meet the manpower need for officers and supervisors of the Special Task Force on Correctional Standards of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice is \$181.7 million.

Strategy 3—A "Fair Share" of M.S.W. Graduates for Probation/Parole

A third strategy is aimed at assuring that social work produces its "fair share" of M.S.W. graduates for probation/parole.⁷ A policy of this kind assumes that other practice fields served by social work have equally legitimate—but not greater—claims on the limited pool of social work graduates. It also assumes that the profession and its clientele suffer from overly successful training and recruitment to one practice field at the expense of the others.

What constitutes a fair share of social work graduates for probation/parole? There are several objective means of determining the fair share of graduates warranted by a given practice field. The

⁷ This is similar to the approach adopted by the Conference on Graduate Psychiatric Education of the American and Canadian Psychiatric Associations. "If we are to increase the number of medical graduates electing psychiatry, we must strengthen the departments of psychiatry in the low-producing schools." American Psychiatric Association, *Training the Psychiatrist to Meet Changing Needs* (Washington, D.C.: 1964), p. 136.

simplest way is to calculate the proportion of the total social welfare labor force employed by a particular field.⁸ Using this criterion, probation/parole deserves 20.5 percent of the M.S.W. graduates, which is its share of the social welfare labor force.⁹

A fair share for corrections as a whole would be 30.1 percent.¹⁰ Psychiatric social work would warrant 4.5 percent as its fair share because 5,171 persons were employed in that field out of 115,799 in the social welfare labor force as of 1960.¹¹ The fair share of M.S.W. graduates warranted by each practice field in proportion to its share of the social welfare labor force is shown in table 29. The maldistribution created by school training patterns is evidenced by the location of fieldwork placements.

TABLE 29.—Distribution of Social Work Students in Field Instruction and Distribution of Social Welfare Labor Force by Practice Fields

	Percentage of M.S.W. students in fieldwork ^b	Percentage of social welfare labor force in practice field ^c
Fields assigned more than fair share of students ^a :		
Psychiatric	25.0	4.5
Family	12.0	7.4
Medical	9.2	3.0
Community planning services	6.8	6.6
Education	6.5	2.0
Fields assigned less than fair share of students:		
Public assistance	7.7	30.4
Corrections	7.5	30.1
Group services	7.5	9.4
Undetermined:		
Child welfare	15.0	(^d)
Other	2.7	(^e)

^a Full-time master's degree students. Practice field terms follow those used by the Council on Social Work Education.

^b All figures are from Council on Social Work Education, *Statistics on Social Work Education 1966* (New York: 1967), table 255, p. 30. These figures were adjusted to prorata students assigned to combined fields (539) and those not yet assigned as of November 1, 1966 (565) and to exclude those not to be in field instruction (45). The total number of full-time master's students on which fieldwork percentages were based is therefore 8,186 of November 1, 1966.

^c All figures except those for corrections are from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960* (New York: National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., undated), table 18, p. 39. Total social welfare manpower reported by the survey was 115,799.

^d Data are based on an estimated total of 39,133 social work positions in corrections at the end of 1965 (see table 19 above) and 130,000 social service positions reported for 1967 by the National Council on Social Work Careers [see National Commission for Social Work Careers of the National Association of Social Workers, *Manpower—A Community Responsibility* (New York: 1968), p. 58].

^e The BLS survey reports child welfare workers in categories that do not appear comparable to those used by CSWE for fieldwork students.

^f The BLS survey also included the following programs (in addition to child welfare work and services to adult offenders): rehabilitation services, services to aged in institutions, teaching social work, and recreation programs.

⁸ The subjective judgments of social workers attached to each given field would undoubtedly yield higher estimates. The 1962 Conference on Graduate Psychiatric Education followed this procedure and decided that a fair share for psychiatry would be 10 percent of the annual number of graduating physicians. See *ibid.*, p. 134.

⁹ There were 130,000 persons employed in social service positions in the U.S. in 1967 according to the National Commission for Social Work Careers. See *Manpower—A Community Responsibility*, *op. cit.*, p. 58. There were 25,633 professional staff employed in probation/parole at the end of 1965 according to project data. See table 5 above.

¹⁰ See table 19 above.

¹¹ See *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960*, *op. cit.*, p. 39.

Three practice fields served by social work have less than their fair share of students in fieldwork training: corrections, public assistance, and group services. Corrections and public assistance each have about one-fourth of their fair share of social work students in fieldwork training. Five practice fields have more than a fair share of social work students in field training. The psychiatric, medical, and education fields each have over three times as many students in fieldwork as are called for by their share of the social welfare labor force.

A second objective procedure for determining fair share is based on the proportion of all social welfare vacancies in a particular field. To justify the 25 percent fieldwork placements in psychiatric social work, for example, 25 percent of all unfilled budgeted positions in social welfare would have to be in this field. At the end of 1965, corrections had approximately 3,400 unfilled budgeted vacancies, or 8.8 percent of the number actually employed, in positions for which social work claims a mandate.¹² Psychiatric social work would require 11,900 official vacancies in order to deserve the number of field placements it now has as compared with those in corrections.¹³ This is about two times the number of psychiatric social workers actually employed in 1960 and is, therefore, a highly improbable number of vacancies.

A third procedure is also based on comparative vacancies but applies a professional standard to determine manpower needs for each field. By this criterion, probation/parole had over 12,500 vacancies for workers and supervisors during 1966.¹⁴ For

¹² About two-thirds of these vacancies were in probation/parole.

¹³ Psychiatric social work has 3½ times the fieldwork placements assigned to corrections.

¹⁴ See "Correction in the United States—A Survey for the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice," *op. cit.*, pp. 240, 268, and 271.

¹⁵ Psychiatric social work has 5 times the fieldwork placements of probation/parole.

psychiatric social work to warrant the number of field placements it now has as compared with probation/parole, it would require the astronomical number of 62,500 vacancies by professional standards.¹⁵

A fourth procedure for determining fair share takes into account the overall need of each particular field for professional manpower. Accordingly, social work education would give priority to practice fields under its mandate that now have less than their fair share of trained social workers. On this basis, probation/parole would have high priority because it has about half the national average of M.S.W.'s for all fields (17 percent). Psychiatric social work would have the lowest priority because it has by far the greatest proportion of M.S.W.'s (72 percent). Nonetheless, social work education assigns this field the highest priority of training need.

As indicated in table 30, school training patterns tend to create and reinforce the maldistribution of professional recruitment into the various practice fields. Almost half the social work students are assigned to field instruction in the three practice fields that have the least need of additional trained manpower. Training patterns of social work education, such as those shown here, are not consonant with assumptions of equal legitimacy for the various practice fields under professional mandate.

By any of these objective standards, there is little question that probation/parole and corrections receive far less than their fair share from social work education. At present, probation/parole recruits about 6.8 percent of all M.S.W. graduates, or one-third of its fair share in proportion to the social welfare labor force.¹⁶ The relative paucity of field-

¹⁶ See "Availability of Social Work Graduates for Probation/Parole" in chapter 3. A somewhat more conservative figure of 5.5 percent is obtained by parallel analysis based on Council on Social Work Education figures for the number of social work students in correctional agencies for field instruction.

TABLE 30.—School Training Patterns in Relation to Professional Needs of Social Welfare Practice Fields

M.S.W.'s in social work positions ^a	Need ^b		School assignments ^c	
	Percent M.S.W.'s	Rank	Percent students	Rank
Fields with lower than average or average percentage:				
Public assistance	3.0	1	7.7	4
Corrections	8.5	2	7.5	5.5
Group services	9.0	3	7.5	5.5
Community planning services	17.0	4	6.8	7
Fields with higher than average percentage:				
Education	30.0	5	6.5	8
Family	34.0	6	12.0	2
Medical	53.0	7	9.2	3
Psychiatric	72.0	8	25.0	1
Undetermined:				
Child welfare ^d	15.0

^a In 1960, 17 percent of all social welfare positions were filled by M.S.W.'s (the figure is 18 percent if recreation programs are excluded). See Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960* (New York: National Social Welfare Assembly, Inc., undated), table 18, p. 39.

^b Highest priority of need is in practice fields with lowest proportion of M.S.W.'s in social welfare positions. It is doubtful that the ranking of fields has shifted much since 1960, although the percent-

age of M.S.W.'s in some fields has probably changed.

^c Percentage of full-time master's degree students in field instruction as of November 1, 1966. See table 29 above and Council on Social Work Education, *Statistics on Social Work Education 1966* (New York: 1967), table 255, p. 30.

^d The child welfare field is assigned the second largest percentage of students for field instruction. Its need for M.S.W.'s by the procedure used in this table cannot be determined from the BLS survey because categories are not comparable with those of CSWE.

work assignments and classroom courses in corrections undoubtedly plays a major part in this maldistribution.¹⁷

No school of social work in the country provides the field of corrections with its fair share (30.1 percent) of fieldwork students. The five schools that most closely approximate this figure as of 1966-67 are shown in table 31.

TABLE 31.—Five Schools of Social Work With Highest Proportion of Master's Degree Students in Correctional Field Placements, November 1966^a

Graduate school of social work	Students in correctional field practice	
	Number	Percent ^b
Wisconsin, Milwaukee	28	20.0
San Diego State	25	18.1
University of Washington	36	17.5
Portland	11	16.4
Missouri	20	15.3

^a Data drawn from Council on Social Work Education, *Statistics on Social Work Education 1966* (New York: 1967), table 255, p. 80.
^b Percentages adjusted to prorate students assigned to combined fields and those not yet assigned and to exclude those not to be in field instruction.

Only 19 out of the 50 schools of social work that responded to our survey offered a classroom course in corrections¹⁸ during 1965-66. About one-third of the schools reported that 50 percent or more of their master's degree courses are not helpful in preparing students for social work practice in corrections.

Impact of Fair Share on Probation/Parole.

A fair share of M.S.W. graduates for probation/parole (20.5 percent) from schools of social work would yield a fairly sizable increase. Table 32 shows the additional manpower that would be available to probation/parole if social work schools contributed their fair share of M.S.W. graduates. The difference over a 6-year period from 1965 to 1970 is approximately 3,375 graduates, almost the size of an entire class.

Official manpower needs in probation/parole would be substantially reduced if social work schools contributed their fair share of graduates to this field. A fair share of the social work graduating classes in 1964-65 and 1965-66 alone would have been sufficient to fill almost half the official vacancies in the country for all professional probation/parole staff. It would have provided 925 additional social work graduates to probation/parole. The number of official vacancies for all professional staff

¹⁷ "The major question is, in what way do the schools in which a large number of graduates elect psychiatry differ from those in which the number is small? . . . It was found that the schools with departments rated 'strong' produced a greater number of graduates choosing psychiatry as a specialty than those with departments rated 'weak.' The essential element, it may be concluded, in the choice of a career in psychiatry is contact with strong psychiatric teaching." *Training the Psychiatrist to Meet Changing Needs*, op. cit., p. 135.

The following variables failed to differentiate medical schools with a high rate of psychiatric residents from those with a low rate: general reputation, academic enthusiasm, motivation for academic achievement, breadth of interest, concise encapsulated instruction, budget conditions, faculty-student ratio, and psychological test results of students.

¹⁸ Defined as courses specifically designed to train students for practice or administration of programs in the prevention, care, and treatment of delinquents and criminals.

TABLE 32.—Recent and Projected Recruitment of Social Workers to Probation/Parole if Social Work Schools Contributed a Fair Share of Their Master's Graduates

Academic year	Total M.S.W. graduates ^a	M.S.W. graduates for probation/parole	
		Estimated recruitment ^b	Fair share ^c
1964-65	3,175	225	650
1965-66	3,650	250	750
1966-67	3,900	275	800
1967-68	4,300	300	875
1968-69	4,725	325	975
1969-70	5,200	350	1,050
Total	24,950	1,725	5,100

^a These are actual figures for the first 8 years (excluding Puerto Rico), and projected figures at the rate of 10 percent yearly increase for the following 8 years. All figures are rounded to the nearest 25.

^b At the rate of 6.8 percent.

^c At the rate of 20.5 percent, which is the estimated proportion of the social welfare labor force employed in probation/parole.

was slightly over 2,100 at the end of 1965.

It is clear that social work education has the means to provide sufficient qualified manpower for probation/parole, by the criterion of *current public policy*. Within a brief period, all official vacancies for professional staff could easily be filled by social work graduates if a fair share were recruited to probation/parole.

Social work education faces a set of difficult choices. If it continues to advocate that its training is the appropriate educational standard for the several social welfare practice fields, then it must address itself to the realistic problems of training and staffing the fields for which it claims a mandate. This is especially true in view of the long-range expansion required to provide sufficient qualified graduates for the entire social welfare field.

Training patterns have direct consequences for recruitment. Social work education should therefore be expected either to establish rational priorities of training need or to provide an approximate fair share of graduates for each practice field. Those who influence educational policy through funds and other means should take into account the maldistribution of professionals now available to the various fields. Parallel studies of other social welfare fields can furnish data that would help to determine what constitutes a rational educational policy concerning manpower and service needs. Corrections (as do groupwork and public assistance) has a right to know whether, and on what basis, its manpower and service needs deserve the low training priority that they now receive from social work education.

It should be emphasized, however, that social work education could not implement professional standards for probation/parole manpower through a fair-share policy. At the rate of 900 social work graduates a year for probation/parole, it would take 20 years to produce the manpower that probation/parole executives reported they needed for the beginning of 1967. It would take 14 years for the schools to produce the social work manpower required in 1966 by the standards of the Special Task Force on Correctional Standards of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice.

An enormous expansion of social work education is required if progressive public policy establishes the number of new positions that are required for the "most effective" functioning of probation/parole agencies.

Chapter 6 will, therefore, consider alternative strategies that draw upon existing resources for probation/parole manpower. A strategy for new institutional resources will be proposed and described in chapters 7 through 10.

Alternative Strategies for Recruitment and Manpower

A fourth strategy to increase the pool of qualified manpower for probation/parole shifts the recruitment burden from social work education to the practice agencies. It assumes that the field can adopt more effective means of attracting and holding trained social workers.

A fifth strategy is also considered in this chapter: the expansion of degree programs other than social work as sources of probation/parole manpower.

Strategy 4—Improving the Recruitment Efficiency of Probation/Parole Agencies

The recruitment of new personnel to probation/parole agencies has been mainly a market enterprise whereby individual agencies compete as best they can for the limited manpower that is available. The strategy which is proposed here requires a more concerted effort by probation/parole to compete against other practice fields for recent and experienced social work graduates. Its success depends upon the ability of probation/parole agencies to engage in a cooperative, organized effort to increase their salaries, and professionalize their work. It focuses on factors that are likely to serve as personal and professional incentives and on specific groups that are likely to be favorable targets for recruitment.

Salaries. Perhaps the most obvious means of increasing probation/parole recruitment efficiency is by raising salaries. The 1960 survey by the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicated that probation/parole paid somewhat higher salaries than did most practice fields.¹ However, recent project data show that *most probation/parole agencies are not competitive in their salaries for beginning social work practitioners.*

The median beginning salary for 1967 social work graduates was \$7,800.² The median beginning salary paid by probation/parole agencies in 1966 was \$5,670. As can be seen in table 33, only about 3 percent of all probation/parole agencies in the country were competitive with the median beginning salaries paid by the social welfare field as a whole. Another way of describing this finding is to point out that 97 percent of the probation/parole agencies in the country paid less than the typical beginning salary commanded by social work graduates.

¹ See *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960*, op. cit., pp. 70–71 and table 39, p. 78.

² See Alfred M. Stamm, "1967 Social Work Graduates: Salaries and Characteristics," *Personnel Information*, vol. 11, No. 2, March 1968, p. 52.

TABLE 33.—Beginning Salaries in Probation/Parole Compared With Beginning Salaries of M.S.W. Graduates

Annual salary	M.S.W. graduates, ^a 1967	Probation/parole agencies, ^b 1966	
	Percent	Percent	Number
Less than \$5,000	1.0	22.4	(132)
\$5,000 to \$5,999	1.1	40.9	(241)
\$6,000 to \$6,999	13.6	25.5	(150)
\$7,000 to \$7,999	40.8	9.8	(58)
\$8,000 to \$9,999	32.3	1.0	(6)
\$10,000 or more	11.2	.3	(2)
Total	100.0	99.9	(589)

^a Drawn from Alfred M. Stamm, "1967 Social Work Graduates: Salaries and Characteristics," *Personnel Information*, vol. 11, No. 2, March 1968, table 7, p. 52.

^b Based on agency responses in 1966 regarding the current beginning salaries for "line practitioners."

The highest salaries of 1967 social work graduates were paid by local and State government agencies (in that order).³ Voluntary agencies, both nonsectarian and sectarian, paid relatively low salaries. Since the field of probation/parole is a government enterprise, it is difficult to account for its low salaries. It appears that probation/parole agencies have not generally been able to convince their local and State governments of the need for competitive salaries to attract qualified manpower.

Professionalization. A second way of improving recruitment efficiency is by increasing the professionalization of probation/parole agencies. This is not a simple matter, but professional norms suggest ways in which it can be done.

GREATER CONCENTRATIONS OF SOCIAL WORK COLLEAGUES. The presence of social workers in probation/parole agencies is apt to attract additional social workers. This suggests that the recruitment of a social worker has value beyond his technical ability as a practitioner. It further suggests that expensive professional "frills," such as agency seminars, basic research, and student fieldwork units, are functional to agency image and recruitment.

PROFESSIONAL SUPERVISION. Case supervision by a trained social worker is of great significance to most of the recent graduates. It is therefore important to recognize the recruitment value of such supervision as well as its economic or technical merit. It is also necessary to note that the new recruit is apt to become professionally discouraged by a supervisory focus on administrative rather than case concerns.⁴

³ See Stamm, op. cit., pp. 51–52.

⁴ See Herman Piven and Donnell M. Pappenfort, "Strain between Administrator and Worker: A View from the Field of Corrections," *Social Work*, October 1960, pp. 37–45.

PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE. An agency image favorable for recruitment rests in large part upon practice conduct that coincides with professional norms. The marketability of trained workers makes it easy for them to bypass or leave the probation/parole agency that regularly strains against professional norms of practice.⁵

When a trained probation/parole officer resigns from an agency because of its demands for unprofessional practice, he is likely to generalize that this condition applies to other agencies in the same field.⁶ He may fail to recognize that some probation/parole agencies are organized along highly professional lines and others are not.⁷ By his departure he becomes a walking advertisement that impairs the recruitment efficiency of other agencies in the field. It is in the recruitment interest of probation/parole, therefore, to "police" actively its member agencies and to provide alternative jobs within the field for competent but dissatisfied workers.

We may indicate briefly two recurrent proposals to professionalize service by restructuring the work role of the probation/parole officer. Neither arrangement is likely to reduce the manpower shortage in probation/parole in any substantial way; but both are likely to increase recruitment efficiency.

One type of plan proposes that routinized duties of the probation/parole officer be assigned to junior officers or case aides. The senior officer is thereby freed to concentrate on professional services that require considerable training and judgment.

An alternative system for professionalizing service is based on the assumption that the best person to make practice decisions regarding routine supervision is the professional officer (rather than an "intake supervisor"). The professional is free to devote a minimum of time and effort to routine tasks and cases and to devote most of his service to complex and needy cases.

This latter arrangement requires that the agency hire trained professionals as probation/parole officers and vest them with substantial practice autonomy. The officer has an agency-supported mandate to pursue service goals. Out of a typical caseload of 50, he would probably select about 20 cases for intensive service. His professional expertise would be easily accessible to the remaining 30 cases as the need emerges or a crisis arises, but routine matters would be handled by telephone, mail, and occasional interviews.

It seems likely that probation/parole can more easily implement this second arrangement. It ap-

proximates more closely the current structure of probation/parole agencies. Professional standards for probation/parole seem to have this model implicitly in mind when they establish work standards for 50 cases,⁸ because intensive professional service is not usually required, and is not feasible, for a caseload this size.

PROFESSIONAL RESEARCH. It is the rare probation/parole agency that does not regard serious evaluation of its programs as an organizational threat (at worst) or as a professional courtesy to academic outsiders (at best).⁹ When these problems are surmounted, however, there are benefits likely to accrue for recruitment.

Having a scholarly research unit that engages in basic practice research tends to reflect a highly professional agency.¹⁰ Agency willingness to integrate research findings into the probation/parole program indicates a genuine concern for improved service and a dedication to professional goals. It shows organizational flexibility and an awareness of the serious limitations in current knowledge about effective probation/parole practice. It is probably the most convincing way of demonstrating to a professional audience that a "positive agency image" is justified. In the long run, it is apt to be a far more convincing recruitment device than is the rhetoric of service intentions.¹¹

Selecting Favorable Targets for Recruitment. In addition to salary and professional incentives, probation/parole may improve its recruitment efficiency of social workers by focusing on several specific targets.

WOMEN. The great majority of probation/parole positions are filled by men. In 1960 the ratio of men to women was 2 to 1 in court-service programs and over 9 to 1 in services to adult offenders.¹² However, women constitute about three-fifths of the social welfare labor force¹³ and a similar percentage of M.S.W. graduates.¹⁴ They also receive substantially lower salaries, on the average, than do male social workers.¹⁵ This salary differential exists from the

⁵ See *Task Force Report: Corrections*, op. cit., pp. 207-209.

⁶ See Herman Piven, Abraham Alcades, and Arden Melzer, "Evaluation Tools and Procedures: Their Development and Application to the Training Curricula of Professional Schools and Youth Service Agencies," paper delivered at Conference of the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime, December 6, 1963, 23 pp.

¹⁰ See Herman Piven, "Training for Organizational Change: Implications for the Field of Corrections," in Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, *Training, Organization, and Change* (Washington, D.C.: 1965), pp. 25-29.

¹² It is an incredible fact that despite the large stakes that are involved in probation/parole (in both human and economic terms) there is a paucity of basic practice research from either the agencies or the universities. Relatively few of the big agencies devote even a small part of their multimillion-dollar budgets to systematic evaluation of service outcomes in relation to organizational inputs.

¹³ See *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960*, op. cit., table 6, p. 21.

¹⁴ *Ibid.*

¹⁵ Sixty-two percent of all M.S.W. graduates in 1967 were women. See Stamm, op. cit., table 4, p. 51.

¹⁶ See *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960*, op. cit., p. 69.

⁵ See Lloyd E. Ohlin, Herman Piven, and Donnell M. Papenfort, "Major Dilemmas of the Social Worker in Probation and Parole," *National Probation and Parole Association Journal*, vol. 2, No. 3, July 1956, pp. 211-225.

⁶ This kind of inaccurate generalization about corrections and probation/parole is made by Harold L. Wilensky and Charles N. Lebeaux, *Industrial Society and Social Welfare* (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1958), pp. 320-321.

⁷ See Herman Piven, *Professionalism and Organizational Structure* (unpublished doctoral dissertation, Columbia University, New York, 1961).

time of entry into the labor market: female graduates in 1967 received an annual salary that was \$555 lower than the salary of male graduates.¹⁶ These two factors suggest that female social workers constitute a neglected source of social work manpower for probation/parole.

PUBLIC ASSISTANCE AND CHILD WELFARE PERSONNEL. Public assistance and (noninstitutional) child welfare programs employ approximately 40 percent of all social welfare workers and about a fifth of all M.S.W.'s in the labor market.¹⁷ The salaries of these two types of agencies are, on the average, lower than those of probation/parole.¹⁸ Their personnel, therefore, constitute a relatively favorable target for recruitment.

EXPOSURE OF ALL M.S.W. STUDENTS TO PROBATION/PAROLE. The importance, drama, and variety of probation/parole practice tend to exert a special appeal to social work students familiar with the field. The complexity of problems encountered in practice makes it relatively easy for the social work student to say with conviction that probation/parole is a field that needs his professional skill.

It is the authors' impression that a fairly sizable number of social work graduates do not feel this appeal and professional need from other social welfare fields with which they are familiar. It seems likely that a greater exposure to the field among students who are strangers to probation/parole would result in increased recruitment. This suggests that probation/parole should engage in special programs designed to familiarize all social work students with the personnel and operation of its practice.¹⁹

Strategy 4, improving the recruitment efficiency of probation/parole, could well be used in conjunction with other strategies. It is the most immediately feasible in that it can be initiated and organized by the probation/parole agencies themselves. However, the extent to which salaries can be increased and work can be professionalized is partly a matter of economics and of progressive public policy. A convincing case for professional salaries and service in probation/parole apparently remains to be made to the satisfaction of many legislative, executive and judicial bodies.

Strategy 5—Expanding Additional Degree Programs as Sources of Probation/Parole Manpower

This section will consider the two main educational alternatives that are now used as sources of

¹⁶ See Stamm, *op. cit.*, p. 54.

¹⁷ See *Salaries and Working Conditions of Social Welfare Manpower in 1960, op. cit.*, table 18, p. 39.

¹⁸ See *ibid.*, table 39, p. 78.

¹⁹ A somewhat similar situation appears to exist in the relationship of psychiatry to medicine. "It was repeatedly noted by the Conference that psychiatry should not proselytize at the expense of other specialties; it should, however, make certain that the medical student is exposed to psychiatry to the extent that he knows as much about it as he does, for example, about surgery." *Training the Psychiatrist to Meet Changing Needs, op. cit.*, p. 134.

probation/parole manpower: (1) degree programs in corrections; and (2) degree programs in other fields.

Degree Programs in Corrections. Besides social work, corrections was the only other university program among 11 choices that was recommended by a substantial number of probation/parole executives to qualify personnel for most positions in their field. As table 34 shows, graduates of degree programs in corrections constitute a supplementary manpower pool that is preferred by about one-third of probation/parole executives.

TABLE 34.—*Corrections as University Area Recommended by Probation/Parole Executives to Qualify Personnel for Probation/Parole Practice*

Work role:	Percent of executives ^a
Probation/parole officer (adult caseload).....	32.8
Probation/parole officer (juvenile caseload)....	27.8
Probation/parole administrator.....	20.5
Three probation/parole roles combined.....	^b 30.4
Training leader in their agency (master's degree).....	29.7

^a Percentages are based on choices of top executives of 146 major probation/parole systems from among 11 listed university areas. Nonrespondents to the particular item are not included.

^b Social work was advocated by 51.8 percent of the executives. A similar ratio of social work to corrections was obtained for each work role.

Project data indicate that 47 senior colleges in the United States offer a degree program in corrections or correctional administration. These programs were defined as follows:

Twelve or more credit hours in a defined program of study in the practice and administration of programs for prevention, control and treatment of offenders.

Responses to project questionnaires from 599 academic institutions (other than professional schools) reveal that about 1 senior college in 25 offered corrections programs during 1965–66.²⁰ University programs in corrections are most often located in departments of sociology. The typical degree is at the bachelor's level, although some programs offer graduate degrees.²¹

The total number of graduates from degree programs in corrections during the academic year 1965–66 was 730 (mean=15.5).²² This number in-

²⁰ The corrections or correctional administration program is "practice-oriented" and was differentiated in the survey from the more academically oriented program of criminology or social deviance.

The latter programs were defined as follows: 12 or more credit hours in a defined program of study in the causes and responses to crime and delinquency as social or psychological phenomena. Project data indicate that 107 senior colleges in the country, or about one out of 11, offered this kind of criminology program during the academic year 1965–66.

²¹ For a directory of university programs in corrections or correctional administration, see Herman Piven and Abraham Alcabes, *Education and Training for Criminal Justice: A Directory of Programs in Universities and Agencies (1965–67)* (Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1968).

²² Junior colleges were not included in this analysis. Only a few of the 509 junior colleges in the country offered a corrections program.

creased to approximately 800 graduates for the academic year 1966-67. Probation and parole can expect to recruit about one-third of these graduates each year.²³

The size of this supplementary manpower pool is virtually identical to that produced by schools of social work during the same period. *The two pools of graduates combined, social work and corrections, constitute only a small fraction of the needed additional manpower for probation/parole, despite the fact that no other educational standard is endorsed by agency executives as qualifying personnel for practice in this field.*

Chart VIII summarizes these findings.

There is limited prospect of expanding degree programs in corrections in order to train students for probation/parole. A relatively small proportion of the academic and professional community advocates corrections as the appropriate university program for probation/parole. Social work ranks much higher as qualification for probation/parole officers, and both public administration and social work generally rank higher as qualification for probation/parole administrators. However, a larger number of executives recommended corrections over other areas (except social work) as the appropriate degree area for most probation/parole roles.

Table 35 gives the percentage of academic and professional executives who advocate the correctional degree program to qualify personnel for probation/parole officers and administrators.

²³ Another one-third take positions in correctional institutions and the remainder go into full-time graduate study, law enforcement, or other positions. Data are based on school responses about the types of positions usually filled by their students upon graduation.

TABLE 35.—Corrections as University Area Recommended by Academic and Criminal Justice Executives to Qualify Personnel as Probation/Parole Officers and Administrators

Source of standard	Percent recommending corrections for degree ^a		Total number of respondents
	For officers	For administrators	
Academic Executives:			
College presidents and department chairmen	23.8	14.1	(256)
Deans—social work	2.8	8.6	(36)
Directors—clinical psychology	8.7	8.3	(24)
Directors—psychiatric residency	10.4	(*)	(134)
Deans—law	35.1	36.4	(57)
Directors—Crime and Delinquency Centers..	30.0	25.0	(20)
Criminal Justice Executives (other than executives of probation/parole agencies):			
Correctional institution systems	24.1	22.0	(59)
Law enforcement systems	19.3	11.1	(45)

^a Data are based on choices from among 11 listed university areas.

* Item omitted for this population.

A substantial number of academic executives, especially in the professional schools, do not legitimate the corrections degree program. As table 36 shows, almost two-fifths of deans and college presidents do not approve of corrections programs for academic or professional study. This is approximately three times the number who disapprove of social work degree programs with a concentration in corrections.

A national policy to provide trained probation/parole personnel through expanded degree pro-

CHART VIII.—Manpower Needs in Probation/Parole During 1966-67 and the Availability of Qualified Personnel for Recruitment

Work role	Additional manpower needed ^a	Qualified personnel available ^b		
		Social work ^c	Corrections ^d	Combined
Probation/parole officers:				
Official vacancies, beginning 1966.....	1,650	250	250	500
Executive assessment, beginning 1966.....	5,600	250	250	500
Executive assessment, beginning 1967.....	13,500	275	275	550
Probation/parole administrators and supervisors:				
Official vacancies, beginning 1966.....	400	250	250	500
Executive assessment, beginning 1966.....	1,975	250	250	500
Executive assessment, beginning 1967.....	2,800	275	275	550
Probation/parole training officers:				
Official vacancies, beginning 1966.....	75	250	250	500
Executive assessment, beginning 1966.....	1,175	250	250	500
Executive assessment, beginning 1967.....	1,525	275	275	550
Total professional staff:				
Official vacancies, beginning 1966.....	2,125	250	250	500
Executive assessment, beginning 1966.....	8,750	250	250	500
Executive assessment, beginning 1967.....	17,825	275	275	550

^a The number needed in addition to those employed in 1,647 probation/parole agencies at the end of 1965. All numbers are rounded to the nearest 25. See tables 5, 6, 7, and 8 above.

^b Qualified by the criterion of executive judgment. Social work and corrections, in that order of frequency, were the university areas generally advocated for a degree by approximately 80 percent of probation/parole executives. The single exception was administrative personnel, for which public administration was recommended by one-

third of the executives (social work ranked first). The following areas were advocated by only a few probation/parole executives: criminology, general law, criminal law, police science, psychiatry, general psychology, clinical psychology, and general sociology.

^c The total number of M.S.W. graduates for the year who are likely to be recruited to probation/parole.

^d The total number of corrections program graduates for the year who are likely to be recruited to probation/parole.

TABLE 36.—Extent to Which Universities and Professional Schools Legitimate Undergraduate Programs With a Concentration in Corrections^a

Academic population	Corrections as degree programs			
	Approve		Do not approve ^b	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
College presidents and department chairmen..	71.0	(257)	29.0	(105)
Deans—social work	59.0	(23)	41.0	(16)
Directors—clinical psychology (Ph. D.).....	36.1	(13)	63.9	(23)
Directors—psychiatric residency	43.1	(62)	56.9	(82)
Deans—law	66.2	(49)	33.8	(25)
Total academic respondents ^c	61.7	(404)	38.3	(251)

^a Twelve or more credit hours in a defined program of study.

^b Figures include respondents who disapprove of these programs at the university and respondents who approve of them only as special noncredit programs.

^c Comparable figures for M.S.W. programs with a concentration in corrections are 88.6 percent approve (N=519) and 13.4 percent do not approve (N=80). These figures do not include responses of social work deans. See table 26 above.

grams in corrections is likely to receive only limited support from the professional and academic communities.

Degree Programs in University Areas Other Than Social Work or Corrections. As described previously, more probation/parole executives advocate social work than any other university area to qualify personnel for each work role in their field. A substantially smaller number (about one-third of the total) recommend a degree program in corrections for most roles in probation/parole.

As table 37 shows, only one other university area was regarded by a sizable number of probation/parole executives as providing suitable training for their field. Public administration programs were advocated to qualify administrative personnel but were not considered appropriate training for any other work role in probation/parole.

Probation/parole executives do not recommend

TABLE 37.—Education Recommended by Probation/Parole Executives to Qualify Personnel for Probation/Parole Practice

Work role	University area recommended for degree			
	Social work or corrections		Nine other areas combined ^a	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Probation/parole officer (adult caseload) ..	79.0	(94)	21.0	(25)
Probation/parole officer (juvenile caseload)	84.0	(100)	16.0	(19)
Probation/parole administrator	57.4	(70)	^b 42.6	(52)
Three probation/parole roles combined	82.1	(92)	17.9	(20)
Training leader in their agency	81.1	(110)	^c 18.9	(26)

^a Includes all of the nine following university areas: criminology; criminal law; general law; police science; psychiatry; clinical psychology; general psychology; general sociology; and public administration.

^b Most of these (32.8 percent of the total) advocated public administration.

^c Master's degree in sociology, public administration, police science, or "other master's degree."

at least three kinds of degree programs that are frequently mentioned as supplementary pools for probation/parole manpower: criminology, general sociology, and general psychology.

The educational standards of probation/parole executives are again reflected in the academic and professional communities. As can be seen in table 38, there is substantial academic and professional support for a public administration program to train probation/parole administrators, but it is not considered suitable training for the probation/parole officer.

TABLE 38.—Public Administration as University Area Recommended by Academic and Criminal Justice Executives to Qualify Personnel for Probation/Parole

Source of standard	Percent of executives recommending public administration for degree ^a		Total number of respondents
	For officers	For administrators	
Academic executives:			
College presidents and department chairmen..	2.0	40.6	(256)
Deans—social work	0.0	11.8	(36)
Directors—clinical psychology	4.3	43.5	(24)
Directors—psychiatric residency7	(*)	(134)
Deans—law	3.5	42.6	(57)
Directors—Crime and Delinquency Centers....	0.0	30.0	(20)
Criminal justice executives (other than executives of probation/parole agencies):			
Correctional institution systems	0.0	37.3	(59)
Law enforcement systems	2.4	57.8	(45)

^a Percentages are based on choices of academic and professional executives from among 11 listed university areas.

* Item omitted for this population.

A large supply of bachelor's and master's degree graduates is produced each year in the United States. Colleges and universities in the United States conferred approximately 536,000 bachelor's degrees in the academic year 1965–66. A year later this number increased by 6.3 percent to 570,000. The number of master's degree graduates was estimated as 126,000 in 1965–66 and 133,000 a year later.²⁴

It is clear that there are enough college graduates available for probation/parole to meet its manpower needs if recruitment standards ignore the university areas in which graduates are educated. It is equally clear that probation/parole executives are intent upon recruiting graduates from social work or corrections. And as table 39 shows, there

²⁴ Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Projections of Educational Statistics to 1975–76* (Washington, D.C.: 1966), p. 27.

TABLE 39.—*University Areas Recommended by Academic and Criminal Justice Executives to Qualify Personnel as Probation/Parole Officers*

Source of standard	Degree area recommended			
	Social work or corrections		Nine other areas combined ^a	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Academic executives:				
College presidents and department chairmen	64.6	(164)	35.4	(90)
Deans—social work	100.0	(34)	0.0	(0)
Directors—clinical psychology	69.6	(16)	30.4	(7)
Directors—psychiatric residency..	51.5	(69)	48.5	(65)
Deans—law	61.4	(35)	38.6	(22)
Directors—Crime and Delinquency Centers	84.2	(16)	15.8	(3)
Criminal justice executives (other than executives of probation/parole agencies):				
Correctional institution systems ..	81.4	(48)	18.1	(11)
Law enforcement systems	47.6	(20)	52.4	(22)
Total	64.6	(402)	35.4	(220)

^a Includes all of the following nine university areas: criminology; criminal law; general law; police science; psychiatry; clinical psychology; general psychology; general sociology; and public administration.

is substantial consensus among the academic and professional community in support of these standards. University programs other than social work or corrections were seldom regarded as suitable qualification for personnel to work as probation/parole officers.

The programs that academic and criminal justice executives "strongly advocate" to train the probation/parole officer are shown in table 39.

The lack of endorsement for programs such as criminology and general sociology is all the more striking when one considers that sociologists are well represented among responding departmental chairmen. Programs in clinical and general psychology are seldom considered suitable training for the probation/parole officer and are endorsed by only 9 percent of the psychologists and 19 percent of the psychiatrists.

Hence, virtually no academic or professional support could be expected for a national policy to train probation/parole officers through a university program in areas other than social work or corrections.

Part II will explore a new strategy: special training and research programs accessible to criminal justice agencies and professional schools throughout the country.

PART II

New Institutional Resources
for
Training and Research
in Criminal Justice

A National Network of University Crime and Delinquency Centers: The Need

Probation/parole will probably continue to experience a serious shortage of qualified manpower. This pessimistic conclusion is based on an appraisal of existing resources and strategies: (1) social work education will probably continue to supply only a small pool of M.S.W. graduates; (2) major gains cannot be expected in the near future from improved recruitment efficiency; (3) degree programs in corrections and public administration will furnish limited supplementary pools of manpower.

At the same time, the need for trained probation/parole personnel is apt to increase as: (1) the population expands; (2) the official crime rate is not reduced (and perhaps continues to rise); and (3) probation and parole are viewed as preferable (and cheaper) alternatives to incarceration.

There exists, then, an urgent necessity to devise new institutional means of reducing the manpower gap without critical sacrifices in standards. A type of structure recommended by many authorities is the Crime and Delinquency Center.

Centers are conceived of as serving four functions: (1) as training institutions for students and practitioners of criminal justice; (2) as centralized channels for recruitment of criminal justice personnel; (3) as consultation centers for criminal justice agencies and relevant professional schools; and (4) as research centers for basic and applied studies of criminal justice.

The following chapters will outline a series of proposals and study findings on establishing a national network of Crime and Delinquency Centers.

PROPOSALS IN THE LITERATURE FOR CRIME AND DELINQUENCY CENTERS. The Crime and Delinquency Center has frequently been recommended as an important means of solving critical problems that confront the various fields of criminal justice.

Radzinowicz, in a study done for the Association of the Bar of the City of New York, reports that "there has been increasing interest in the idea that a series of criminological centers should be established at various focal points throughout the United States."¹ The Radzinowicz report recommends that centers be independent of both the operating governmental agencies and academic institutions.

¹ Leon Radzinowicz, *The Role of Criminology and a Proposal for an Institute of Criminology* (New York: Association of the Bar of the City of New York, 1964), p. 29. The report was presented to and approved by the special committee on the administration of criminal justice.

The Committee (Special Committee on the Administration of Criminal Justice) found itself in complete agreement with its reporter that the kind of criminological center or institute contemplated should, as a matter of strong preference, not be associated with any particular university, professional school, governmental or private organization devoted to other purposes, or committed to any narrow professional purpose or particular evil or amelioration in the administration of the criminal law.²

The report of the President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice discusses the need for a center that emphasizes an interdisciplinary approach to problems of crime: "Since the complexities of crime cut across many disciplines and many projects require a group of people working together, it is important that there be some collaborative, organized research projects and centers."³

The proceedings of the Arden House Conference on Manpower and Training for Corrections, co-sponsored by leading national associations, contains numerous references to the need for a Crime and Delinquency Center. Although the conference made no specific recommendations about location and program, it did recommend that:

Centers for in-service training should be established and expanded for correctional systems. Such centers may be developed on a local, State, regional, and national basis depending upon the size of the various correctional systems involved. These centers should have broad-gauge training approaches which will increase understanding and cooperation between agencies and institutions identified with corrections, social welfare, and mental health.⁴

A recommendation from UNESCO indicates international support for Crime and Delinquency Centers.

² *Ibid.*, p. iii.

³ The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 275.

⁴ Charles S. Prigmore (ed.), *Manpower and Training for Corrections: Proceedings of an Arden House Conference, June 24-26* (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1966), p. xii.

The ideal solution would be to found institutes of criminology in the universities, and to make them sufficiently autonomous; they would offer theoretical and practical courses to all who wished to extend their knowledge of criminal problems, that is, to doctors, lawyers, students, judges, experts, police and judicial officers.⁵

The literature does not clearly differentiate between centers and institutes. The terms often appear to be used interchangeably. Proposals to establish criminal justice institutes vary in their specificity. Some proposals recommend that institutes be established for training all types of personnel in the criminal justice fields. The Council of State Governments, the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime, and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, for instance, propose that:

In cooperation with the State's institutions of higher education, training institutes should be developed for the variety of officials and personnel required for prevention, control and treatment services; i.e., law enforcement officers, judges, and individuals in probation and after-care institutions, school guidance, vocational training, guidance clinics, etc.⁶

The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice proposes specific training programs for particular roles, such as judges.

It would be highly desirable for all jurisdictions to conduct sentencing institutes on a regular basis. They provide a forum for judges to discuss the causes of disparity within their courts and to formulate uniform policies to be applied in individual cases. They open valuable channels of communication between the courts and correctional authorities on the most effective use of sentencing alternatives and on the content of correctional programs.⁷

The President's Commission recommends institutes for supervisory and administrative personnel in law enforcement.

Each State . . . should establish mandatory state-wide standards which require that all personnel, prior to assuming supervisory or ad-

ministrative responsibilities, complete advanced training offered either by the department or by college or university institutes. Such training could include subjects in leadership, fiscal management, supervisory decisionmaking, and psychological aspects of supervision.⁸

The President's Commission also recommends establishment of institutes devoted exclusively to research: "Substantial public and private funds should be provided for a number of criminal research institutes."⁹

Proposals for Crime and Delinquency Centers generally provide only rough indications for new institutions to help solve various critical problems of criminal justice. Recommendations seldom specify what constitutes desirable programs, staff, structure, students, and funding.¹⁰

The next three chapters will address these matters in some detail. First, however, study findings will be presented on the importance and need of a center network to criminal justice agencies and academic institutions throughout the country.

Importance of Centers to Criminal Justice Agencies and Academic Institutions

IMPORTANCE OF CENTER TO CRIMINAL JUSTICE AGENCIES. Is it important to criminal justice agencies in the United States that they have access to a University Crime and Delinquency Center? Table 40 reveals that 95 percent of the major criminal justice systems¹¹ think that it is important that a Center be established *in their area*. Over 80 percent of the systems regard a nearby Center of great importance.

There is remarkable concurrence among the three

⁵ The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: The Police* (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 141.

⁶ The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *The Challenge of Crime in a Free Society*, op. cit., p. 276.

¹⁰ A number of the existing centers were supported by funds from the Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development. For brief descriptions of the proposals for establishing these centers see: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Administration, Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, *Summaries of Training Projects, Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Offenses Control Act* (Washington, D.C.: 1965), pp. 1-18. For a list of the 27 centers operating in 1965-67 and a brief description of their training programs, see Herman Piven and Abraham Alcabes, *Education and Training for Criminal Justice—A Directory of Programs in Universities and Agencies* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1968), J.D. Publication No. 78, pp. 58-64.

¹¹ Major systems are those which are centralized on the Federal or State level, or ones that employ a relatively large full-time staff. For a description of the 146 major probation/parole systems, see "Educational Standards" in chapter 3. Appendix A describes the 93 major correctional institution systems in the sample (representing over 400 institutional facilities). Appendix B describes the 108 major law enforcement systems in the sample (employing over 100,000 full-time staff members).

⁵ Leonidio Ribiero, "Brazil" in *The University Teaching of Social Sciences: Criminology* (Switzerland: UNESCO, 1957), p. 87.

⁶ The Council of State Governments, The President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime, and the National Council on Crime and Delinquency, *Juvenile Delinquency—A Report on State Action and Responsibilities* [prepared for the Governors' Conference Committee on Juvenile Delinquency (Chicago: The Council of State Governments, 1962)]. Reprinted by U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, p. 93.

⁷ The President's Commission on Law Enforcement and Administration of Justice, *Task Force Report: The Courts* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967), p. 23.

types of criminal justice systems on the importance of establishing a nearby Center. It is difficult to conceive of a proposal for any type of new institutional resource that is likely to elicit as favorable a response from systems of probation/parole, correctional institutions, and law enforcement.

IMPORTANCE OF CENTER TO ACADEMIC INSTITUTIONS. Is the academic community receptive to the establishment of a network of University Crime and Delinquency Centers? Table 41 summarizes the findings from 793 colleges, universities, and professional schools concerning the importance they attach to establishing a network of Centers in the United States. Responses from the 26 existing Centers are presented separately at the bottom of the table.

The table shows that 98 percent of the colleges, universities, and professional schools favor a national network of Centers; and 88 percent of these institutions regard it as of great importance. The experience of the few existing Centers has convinced

most of them that a national Center network is extremely important.

It is apparent that academic support for Crime and Delinquency Centers is very high among all types of colleges and professional schools, although it is most strongly favored by college presidents, law school deans, and existing Centers.

Not all academic institutions are prepared to give high priority to a University Crime and Delinquency Center, even though they favor a national network. The question is thus whether generalized academic endorsement of the Center can be applied to a particular academic establishment. Do current conditions provide a realistic basis for creating University Centers at a sizable number of academic institutions?

As table 42 shows, most colleges, universities, and professional schools think it of great importance that a Center be established at their own college or university. Less than one-fifth of the institutions feel that a Center is of no importance to their college or university.

TABLE 40.—Importance That Criminal Justice Systems Attach to the Establishment of a University Crime and Delinquency Center in Their Area

Criminal justice system	Degree of importance ^a (percent)				Total	
	Extremely important	Quite important	Somewhat important	Not at all important	Percent	Number
Probation/parole	55.9	30.9	11.8	1.5	100.1	(136)
Correctional institutions	49.4	33.3	9.2	8.0	99.9	(87)
Law enforcement	42.4	30.3	19.2	8.1	100.0	(99)
Total	50.0	31.4	13.4	5.3	100.1	—
Number of systems.....	(161)	(101)	(43)	(17)	—	(322)

^a Percentages are based on the responses of top executives in each system to the following item: "Do you think it important that a

University Center for Training and Research in law enforcement, criminal justice, and corrections be established in your area?"

TABLE 41.—Importance That Academic Institutions Attach to the Establishment of a National Network of University Crime and Delinquency Centers

Academic institution	Degree of importance ^a (percent)				Total	
	Extremely important	Quite important	Somewhat important	Not at all important	Percent	Number
Colleges and universities.....	63.8	28.2	7.4	0.7	100.1	(447)
Schools of social work.....	38.3	46.8	12.8	2.1	100.0	(47)
Departments of clinical psychology.....	31.0	42.9	19.0	7.1	100.0	(42)
Psychiatric residency centers.....	46.9	34.3	15.4	3.4	100.0	(175)
Schools of law.....	63.4	26.8	8.5	1.2	99.9	(82)
Total.....	56.7	31.3	10.2	1.8	100.0	—
Number of institutions.....	(450)	(248)	(81)	(14)	—	(793)
Existing Centers.....	73.1	23.1	3.8	0.0	100.0	(26)

^a Percentages are based on responses of college presidents, department chairmen, school deans, and directors of existing Centers to the following item: "Do you think it important that University Centers

for Training and Research in law enforcement, criminal justice and corrections be established in various parts of the country?"

TABLE 42.—Importance That Academic Institutions Attach to the Establishment of a Crime and Delinquency Center at Their Own University

Academic institution ^b	Degree of importance ^a (percent)				Total	
	Extremely important	Quite important	Somewhat important	Not at all important	Percent	Number
Colleges and universities.....	21.8	24.5	23.0	30.7	100.0	(404)
Schools of social work.....	17.4	41.3	41.3	0.0	100.0	(46)
Departments of clinical psychology.....	5.1	41.0	35.9	17.9	99.9	(39)
Psychiatric residency centers.....	47.4	31.0	18.1	3.5	100.0	(171)
Schools of law.....	34.2	30.3	30.3	5.3	100.1	(76)
Total.....	27.9	28.5	24.5	19.2	100.0	—
Number of institutions.....	(205)	(210)	(180)	(141)	—	(736)
Existing centers ^c	73.1	23.1	3.8	0.0	100.0	(26)

^a Percentages are based on responses to the following item: "Do you think it important to establish a Crime and Delinquency Center at your own university (or college)?"

^b Excludes institutions that already have a Crime and Delinquency Center.

^c Percentages are based on responses about the importance of continuing the Center at their university.

CHART IX.—Profile of Law Schools in Relation to Criminal Justice Training

	Dominant pattern	Secondary pattern ^a
1. Number of graduates trained in Criminal Justice	All or most graduates (82% schools)
2. Classroom course in criminal law	Offered (100% schools)
3. Classroom course in correctional law	Not offered (73% schools)	Offered (27% schools)
4. Field experience in criminal or correctional law	Offered (52% schools)	Not offered (48% schools)
5. (a) Special sequence in criminal or correctional law	Not offered (86% schools)	(b)
(b) Program of minimal specialization in criminal or correctional law ^c	Offered (52% schools)	Not offered (48% schools)

^a The pattern for 10 percent or more law schools.^b Only 8 percent of the law schools report a sequence of nine credit hours; 11 percent report a sequence of seven or more credit hours.^c At least one classroom course plus field experience in criminal or correctional law.

With the exception of the 26 existing Centers, the strongest proponents of a Center are the psychiatric residency centers and the schools of law. The weakest are the departments of clinical psychology.

The Center as a Necessary Adjunct to Professional Training

Is there a genuine need for the Center as a new institutional training resource, or would it merely constitute an added academic frill? In this section we shall discuss two kinds of data designed to help answer this question.

The first set of findings is concerned with whether, and by what means, adequate preparation for practice in criminal justice is now being acquired through professional training. The second set of findings deals with the estimated number of students who would profit from special training courses offered by Crime and Delinquency Centers.

Professional Training for Practice in Criminal Justice. The dominant and secondary patterns of training that relate to criminal justice practice are summarized below for four professions: (1) law; (2) psychiatry; (3) clinical psychology; and (4) social work. A number of findings indicate the necessity of reexamining the general assumption that a professional degree is qualification for professional practice in criminal justice. Professional schools differ widely in their programs and approaches to training for criminal justice. Their assessments regarding the qualification of their graduates for professional practice in this field also differ.¹²

LAW. The most coherent pattern of training for criminal justice is found among the law schools. Their basic program includes training in criminal law for all students with further specialization available in some programs. A criminal law course is

offered in all schools and is required for the professional degree. Thus, this "specialized" course, in combination with other basic units of study, qualifies virtually all graduates to practice law in criminal justice. Additional specialized courses in criminal justice are available in some law schools and may constitute a special sequence: a second or third course in criminal law, courses in correctional law, and field experience in criminal or correctional law. The training patterns found in 83 of the 133 law schools in the United States are summarized in chart IX.

PSYCHIATRY. A second pattern of training for criminal justice is found among psychiatric residency centers. They offer a limited introduction to criminal justice for almost all residents and specialized training programs for some. Most graduates of the majority of center programs are not considered qualified for psychiatric practice in criminal justice. Only the centers that offer extensive specializations for criminal justice graduate a high proportion of residents considered qualified for psychiatric practice with offenders. The training patterns of 184 of the 234 psychiatric residency centers in the United States are summarized in chart X.

CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY. A third educational pattern is that for clinical psychology, which offers few specialized courses or programs, has few courses that are generically helpful, and produces few graduates who are considered trained for professional practice in corrections. Clinical psychology schools are similar to psychiatric centers in that they appear to have a specialization view of professional education for practice in corrections. Unlike psychiatry, however, they apparently reject a mandate to train for professional practice with offenders.¹³

The profile of 44 of the 67 clinical psychology

¹² Project findings on professional school training for practice in criminal justice will be reported in greater detail in subsequent publications. See appendix D for a description of the professional schools whose training patterns are summarized here.

¹³ "Psychologists, by and large, have not exhibited the kind of dedication or involvement in corrections that other professions have shown." See Sheldon K. Edelman, "President's Message," *Correctional Psychologist*, December 1965, p. 1.

CHART X.—Profile of Psychiatric Residency Centers in Relation to Criminal Justice Training

	Dominant pattern	Secondary pattern ^a
1. Number of graduates trained for Criminal Justice	Few or no graduates (47% centers)	All or most graduates (32% centers)
2. Lectures or seminars on psychiatric practice in Criminal Justice	Offered (84% centers)	Not offered (15% centers)
3. Practice experience with offenders	Offered (85% centers)	Not offered (15% centers)
4. Formal specialization in Criminal Justice ^b	Not offered (73% centers)	Offered (22% centers)

^a The pattern for 10 percent or more residency centers.^b Forensic psychiatry, penal psychiatry, or other specialization for practice in Criminal Justice settings.

CHART XI.—Profile of Clinical Psychology Schools in Relation to Corrections Training

	Dominant pattern	Secondary pattern ^a
1. Number of graduates trained for corrections	Few or no graduates (63% schools)	All or most graduates (30% schools)
2. Number of courses that help train for practice in corrections	Few or no courses (57% schools)	All or most courses (18% schools)
3. Classroom course in correctional practice	Not offered (93% schools)
4. Classroom course in criminology/social deviance	Not offered (91% schools)
5. Internships with offenders	Not offered (73% schools)	Offered (27% schools)
6. (a) Formal specialization in corrections	Not offered
(b) Program of minimal specialization in corrections ^b	Not offered (97% schools)

^a The pattern for 10 percent or more clinical psychology schools.

^b At least one classroom course in corrections plus field experience in correctional settings.

schools in the United States is shown in chart XI.

SOCIAL WORK. Educational policy in social work as it relates to correctional training is the least coherent of the four professional school populations. No formal specializations are offered, but about one-third of the schools meet minimal criteria for a correctional specialization. Some, although not most, schools offer a specialized course on practice in corrections to some students. Almost all schools offer field experience with offenders to a limited number of students. The majority of schools view most of their standard courses as a help in training for practice in corrections, but there is substantial disagreement among the schools over the contribution of these courses. A majority of the schools consider their graduates trained for professional practice in corrections, but 40 percent feel that their graduates are untrained for practice in this field.¹⁴

The profile of 50 of the 58 social work schools in the United States at the time of survey is shown in chart XII.

The school profiles presented above indicate the

¹⁴ Differences in educational policy are perhaps most clearly discernible in the two statements below:

1. "There shall be no accrediting of any specialization [in a school of social work] by any definition." Council on Social Work Education, *Graduate Profession Schools of Social Work in Canada and the U.S.A.* (New York: January 1965), p. 2.

2. "The National Association of Social Workers is structured on many principles; these include both method and field. The Committee [on the Study of Competence] therefore reached the conclusion that definition and assessment of professional competence should include attention to specific knowledge and skill in social work within a particular field of practice. This conclusion led to the inclusion of a 'field' component among those considered essential. To omit attention to the 'field' component would be to ignore the realities of the way social work practice (and the National Association of Social Workers) is structured." National Association of Social Workers, *Workbook of the Committee on the Study of Competence*, 1967, mimeographed, p. 6.

wide policy differences regarding training and qualifications for professional practice in criminal justice. A large number of schools offer no specialized program or course in criminal justice and do not regard their professional degree as qualification for practice in this field.

Some schools regard their professional degree as qualification for professional practice in criminal justice but they do not offer a specialized program or course in this field for most students.

A third group of schools offers specialization programs in criminal justice and regards this specialized training as qualification for professional practice in the field.

A fourth group requires a specialized introductory course in criminal justice for all students and regards its professional degree as qualification for practice in this field.¹⁵

Much of the evidence in this section casts doubt on the consistency and efficacy of educational policy in the professional schools as it applies to criminal justice. Each of the professions under survey has

¹⁵ The proportion of 1965-66 graduates that a school considered qualified for practice in criminal justice was initially conceived of as providing an index of educational philosophy. If a school regarded its degree program as having trained a majority of its graduates so they could practice in the field of criminal justice, this belief presumably indicated a "generic" orientation to professional education. A "nongeneric" school was one that regarded its degree program as failing to train 50 percent or more of its graduates for professional practice in criminal justice. This index yielded the following distribution of "nongeneric" schools: (1) social work—45 percent; (2) clinical psychology—69 percent; (3) psychiatry—61 percent; (4) law—12 percent.

As conceived, the educational orientation index was designed to reveal the impact of different educational philosophies on school programs, plans for change, etc. However, it does not lend itself to this purpose when the concept of generic education is unclear—as is indicated throughout the analysis.

CHART XII.—Profile of Social Work Schools in Relation to Corrections Training

	Dominant pattern	Secondary pattern ^a
1. Number of graduates trained to practice in corrections	All or most graduates (52% schools)	Few or no graduates (40% schools)
2. Number of courses that help train for practice in corrections	All or most courses (56% schools)	Few or no courses (22% schools)
3. Classroom course in correctional practice	Not offered (62% schools)	Offered (38% schools)
4. Classroom course in criminology/social deviance	Not offered (82% schools)	Offered (18% schools)
5. Field experience with offenders	Offered (90% schools)	Not offered (10% schools)
6. (a) Formal specialization in corrections	Not offered
(b) Program of minimal specialization in corrections ^b	Not offered (64% schools)	Offered (36% schools)

^a The pattern for 10 percent or more social work schools.

^b At least one classroom course in corrections plus field experience in correctional settings.

taken on a responsibility to provide expert personnel for certain key positions in criminal justice. Analysis of professional school programs, except for those of the law schools, raises serious questions about whether qualified graduates are being provided for criminal justice, even from the perspective of the schools themselves.

Student Need for the Crime and Delinquency Center. An additional index that reflects the scope of the need for Crime and Delinquency Centers as a new training resource is the extent to which students would profit from special courses offered by a Center. If existing training programs adequately prepare students for work with offenders, there is a less pressing need for a national network of Crime and Delinquency Centers. As table 43 shows, there is substantial consensus among criminal justice executives on the need for special training programs at a Center in their area. Eighty percent feel that

many or all of the students who are interested in working with offenders would profit from special courses offered through a nearby Crime and Delinquency Center. Probation/parole and correctional institution systems are especially convinced of the need for Center training of students.

Academic executives are similarly convinced of the need for a training Center at their university. Seventy-five percent think that many or all of their students who are interested in practice with offenders would profit from special courses offered by a Center. Chairmen of clinical psychology departments are the only group who think that Center courses would be profitable for only a few students.

The findings of this chapter indicate that a great need exists for Crime and Delinquency Centers throughout the country. Chapter 8 will consider the kinds of Center programs that are recommended to meet this need.

TABLE 43.—Executive Assessments About Proportion of Students Interested in Work With Offenders Who Would Profit From Special Courses Offered by a Crime and Delinquency Center

	All or many	Few or none	Total	
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Number
Criminal justice system^a				
Probation/parole	86.3	13.7	100.0	(131)
Correctional institutions	83.7	14.3	100.0	(84)
Law enforcement	67.7	32.3	100.0	(96)
Total	80.4	19.6	100.0	(311)
Academic institution^b				
Colleges and universities	85.2	14.8	100.0	^c (115)
Schools of social work	71.1	28.9	100.0	(45)
Departments of clinical psychology	47.2	52.8	100.0	(36)
Psychiatric residency centers	70.2	29.8	100.0	(171)
Schools of law	85.9	14.1	100.0	(78)
Total	75.1	24.9	100.0	(445)

^a Systems estimating the proportion of students who would profit from special courses offered by a Center in their area.

^b Institutions estimating the proportion of students who would profit from special courses offered by a Center at their university.

^c Limited to colleges and universities that had been cited in earlier studies as offering an "educational program" in one or more of the Crime and Delinquency fields. Item omitted for other institutions.

A National Network of University Crime and Delinquency Centers: Recommended Programs

Training Programs

What kinds of Center programs will criminal justice agencies find most useful? Are the agencies likely to become engaged in training, consultation, and research if a Center is established in the agency's area?

Training Programs for Agency Personnel. As can be seen in table 44, almost all criminal justice systems endorse Center training programs for staff members of their agencies. More than 90 percent of the executives from each type of system recommend that short-term training for agency personnel be conducted by a Center in their area. The proposed focus for such programs is the application of professional knowledge to the work of the practitioner in criminal justice.

TABLE 44.—Criminal Justice Systems Recommending That Nearby Center Conduct Short-Term Training in Professional Practice for Agency Personnel

Criminal justice system	Short-term training for agency personnel ^a			
	Recommend		Do not recommend	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Probation/parole	90.7	(127)	9.3	(13)
Correctional institutions	92.3	(84)	7.7	(7)
Law enforcement	97.0	(98)	3.0	(3)
Total	93.1	(309)	6.9	(23)

^a Percentages are based on responses to the following proposed program (if a University Center were to be established in their area): "Short-term training programs for agency (institutional-departmental) personnel on the application of professional knowledge to their correctional (law enforcement) roles."

The academic community is also highly responsive to the proposal that a Center at their university conduct short-term training for practitioners such as judges, probation officers, policemen, and wardens. More than two-thirds of the academic in-

TABLE 45.—Academic Institutions Recommending That Center Conduct Short-Term Training in Professional Practice for Criminal Justice Personnel

Academic institution	Short-term training for agency personnel ^a			
	Recommend		Do not recommend	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Colleges and universities	67.4	(240)	32.6	(116)
Schools of social work	82.6	(38)	17.4	(8)
Departments of clinical psychology	46.3	(19)	53.7	(22)
Psychiatric residency centers	75.7	(128)	24.3	(41)
Schools of law	60.5	(49)	39.5	(32)
Total	68.4	(474)	31.6	(219)
Existing Centers	88.5	(23)	11.5	(3)

^a Percentages are based on responses to the proposed program "if a Center is established at your university."

stitutions endorse training programs designed to apply professional knowledge to the role of the practitioner in criminal justice.

As table 45 shows, schools of social work and psychiatry are the strongest proponents of Center training programs for criminal justice personnel. Departments of clinical psychology are the single academic group that does not favor programs of this kind.

Training Programs for Recent Graduates. A second kind of Center program is geared to the training of recent graduates from professional schools for practice in criminal justice. It is intended to help the graduate bridge the gap between his generalized professional education and what he will encounter in criminal justice practice. It is also seen as an important means of channeling recent graduates into the criminal justice field.

Training programs of this kind are favored by most correctional systems but not by a majority of law enforcement agencies. About 70 percent of the probation/parole and correctional institution systems recommend Center training programs for recent graduates as compared with only 43 percent of the law enforcement systems. Table 46 summarizes these findings.

TABLE 46.—Criminal Justice Systems Recommending That Nearby Center Conduct Summer Training in Criminal Justice for New Graduates of Professional Schools

Criminal justice system	Summer training for recent graduates ^a			
	Recommend		Do not recommend	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Probation/parole	67.1	(94)	32.9	(46)
Correctional institutions	72.5	(66)	27.5	(25)
Law enforcement	42.6	(43)	57.4	(48)
Total	61.1	(203)	38.9	(129)

^a Percentages are based on responses to the following proposed program (if a university Center were to be established in their area): "Summer training programs for graduating students of professional schools on the application of professional knowledge to correctional (law enforcement) practice."

A majority of college administrators are not convinced of the need for Center programs aimed at the recent professional school graduate. Perhaps the college administrator feels that professional schools should have full responsibility to train students for practice in the field of criminal justice.

However, most professional schools favor Center training programs that would familiarize their recent graduates with the particulars of criminal justice practice. As table 47 shows, each group of professional schools endorses the idea of summer programs for the Center to train graduating students

in the application of professional knowledge to practice in criminal justice. Almost all existing Centers favor such programs.

TABLE 47.—*Academic Institutions Recommending That Center Conduct Summer Training in Criminal Justice for New Graduates of Professional Schools*

Academic institution	Summer training for recent graduates ^a			
	Recommend		Do not recommend	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Colleges and universities	42.7	(152)	57.3	(204)
Schools of social work	69.6	(32)	30.4	(14)
Departments of clinical psychology	61.0	(25)	39.0	(16)
Psychiatric residency centers	74.6	(126)	25.4	(43)
Schools of law	75.3	(61)	24.7	(20)
Total	57.1	(396)	42.9	(297)
Existing Centers	80.8	(21)	19.2	(5)

^a If a Center is established at their university.

Consultation for Criminal Justice Agencies

How can criminal justice agencies gain access to expert consultation service on an ongoing basis? Are agencies likely to use consultation services if they are made available?

As can be seen in table 48, over three-fourths of the criminal justice systems recommend that a nearby Center provide consultation on innovations in programs, roles, and research.

TABLE 48.—*Criminal Justice Systems Recommending That Nearby Center Provide Consultation for Criminal Justice Agencies*

Criminal justice system	Consultation for criminal justice agencies ^a			
	Recommend		Do not recommend	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Probation/parole	73.6	(103)	26.4	(37)
Correctional institutions	83.5	(76)	16.5	(15)
Law enforcement	76.2	(77)	23.8	(24)
Total	77.1	(256)	22.9	(76)

^a Percentages are based on responses to the following proposed program (if a university Center were to be established in their area): "Consultation with agencies on innovations of correctional (law enforcement) programs, roles and research."

The findings suggest that most criminal justice administrators are prepared to discuss and consider various means of updating their programs, of restructuring their assignments, and of applying new research. At the present time, relatively few agencies have access to expert consultation services except at times of crisis, at which point reforms are usually imposed. A Center program of consultation has the potential to assist agencies in instituting changes voluntarily, under conditions which would further an exchange of ideas and minimize the stress of imposed change.

About three-fourths of the academic institutions recommend a consultation program for criminal justice agencies if a Center were established at their university. From table 49 it can be seen that the greatest support for such programs comes from professional schools and existing Centers.

TABLE 49.—*Academic Institutions Recommending That Center Provide Consultation for Criminal Justice Agencies*

Academic institution	Consultation for criminal justice agencies ^a			
	Recommend		Do not recommend	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Colleges and universities	69.1	(246)	30.9	(110)
Schools of social work	87.0	(40)	13.0	(6)
Departments of clinical psychology	87.8	(36)	12.2	(5)
Psychiatric residency centers	89.3	(151)	10.7	(18)
Schools of law	72.8	(59)	27.2	(22)
Total	76.8	(532)	23.2	(161)
Existing Centers	84.6	(22)	15.4	(4)

^a Percentages are based on responses to the following proposed program (if a Center is established at their university): "Consultation with agencies working with offenders on innovations in programs, roles and research."

As many academic institutions as criminal justice systems favor Center consultation services for agencies working with offenders, which indicates that the academic community recognizes an obligation to apply its expert knowledge to the problems of nearby criminal justice agencies.

Center Research

A large majority of criminal justice agencies recommend that University Crime and Delinquency Centers be engaged in two types of research. One type of research would deal with descriptions and explanations of criminal and delinquent behavior. It would mainly be concerned with causation or etiology, or what is often referred to as "basic criminological research." As table 50 shows, about 75 percent of the agencies recommend that a university center conduct research of this kind.

A similarly high proportion of criminal justice agencies favor research on the administration of justice, that is research on the nature and location of practice decisions and the conditions under which various practice results are achieved. Studies of this kind are often called "applied criminological research," or research on practice theory.¹

The majority of each group of criminal justice agencies recommends that a Center in their area conduct both etiological and practice research. These findings evince a highly favorable opportunity for Center research, suggesting moreover that most criminal justice agencies would willingly provide research access to their staff and clientele for studies conducted under Center auspices. Under present conditions, it is often difficult for outside researchers to obtain particular kinds of "hidden data."²

¹ See Herman Piven, "Training for Organizational Change: Implications for the Field of Corrections," in *Training, Organization, and Change* (Washington, D.C.: Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, 1965), pp. 25-29.

² See, for example, Sidney H. Aronson and Clarence C. Sherwood, "Researcher Versus Practitioner: Problems in Social Action Research," *Social Work*, October 1967, pp. 89-96.

TABLE 50.—*Criminal Justice Systems Recommending That Center Conduct Research on Criminal Etiology and Administration of Justice*

Criminal justice system	Center research							
	Criminal etiology ^a				Administration of justice ^b			
	Recommend		Do not recommend		Recommend		Do not recommend	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Probation/parole.....	81.4	(114)	18.6	(26)	72.9	(102)	27.1	(38)
Correctional institutions.....	76.9	(70)	23.1	(21)	74.7	(68)	25.3	(23)
Law enforcement.....	67.3	(68)	32.7	(33)	78.2	(79)	21.8	(22)
Total.....	75.9	(252)	24.1	(80)	75.0	(249)	25.0	(83)

^a Percentages are based on responses to the following proposed program (if a Center were to be established at a university in their area): "Research on causes and types of criminal and delinquent behavior."

^b Percentages are based on responses to the following proposed program: "Research on correctional (law enforcement) decisions, processes and outcomes."

As might be expected, the academic community is also strongly in favor of research as part of a Center program. About five-sixths of the academic institutions recommend that if a Center is established at their university it engage in "basic" research on the causes of criminal and delinquent behavior.

What is somewhat surprising is the great interest of the professional schools in studies of criminal justice practice. As is shown in table 51, over 80 percent of each group of professional schools recommends Center research on "practice decisions, processes and outcomes" in work with offenders.

The findings in table 51 evidence a genuine concern with the efficacy of professional training as it applies to criminal justice. It indicates a willingness for the Center to examine professional theories about methods of dealing with offenders in relation to actual practice. In this sense, a University Crime and Delinquency Center could develop the necessary institutional links for empirical tests of professional theories concerning practice with offenders.

Demonstration Programs

There are two major kinds of problems relevant to criminal justice practice that experimental programs are often faced with: (1) it is often difficult for laboratory experiments to duplicate field conditions; (2) it is often difficult for experimental field programs to control extraneous variables.

Special university facilities have sometimes been used as the structure that can best minimize these

difficulties. A university hospital, for example, may conduct an experimental program on diet control with patients from the community. A university reading clinic may test the efficacy of an experimental technique with slow learners from the public schools.

Is it desirable and feasible for a University Crime and Delinquency Center to engage in similar demonstrations of practice? As can be seen in table 52, most criminal justice agencies recommend that a nearby Center conduct small-scale demonstration programs in correctional or law enforcement practice.

TABLE 52.—*Criminal Justice Systems Recommending That Nearby Center Conduct Demonstrations of Practice With Offenders*

Criminal justice system	Demonstrations of practice ^a			
	Recommend		Do not recommend	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Probation/parole.....	70.7	(99)	29.3	(41)
Correctional institutions.....	61.5	(56)	38.5	(35)
Law enforcement.....	58.4	(59)	41.6	(42)
Total.....	64.5	(214)	35.5	(118)

^a Percentages are based on responses to the following proposed program (if a Center were to be established in their area): "Small-scale demonstration programs in correctional (law enforcement) practice."

The findings suggest that Centers could usually expect the cooperation they need from criminal justice agencies in order to try out innovations in practice with offenders under controlled conditions.

Academic institutions are about evenly divided with respect to the suitability of Center demonstration programs. The data in table 53 show that professional schools are generally in favor of a Center

TABLE 51.—*Academic Institutions Recommending That Center Conduct Research on Criminal Etiology and Administration of Justice*

Academic institution	Center research							
	Criminal etiology ^a				Administration of justice ^b			
	Recommend		Do not recommend		Recommend		Do not recommend	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Colleges and universities.....	77.2	(275)	22.8	(81)	70.2	(250)	29.8	(106)
Schools of social work.....	84.8	(39)	15.2	(7)	91.3	(42)	8.7	(4)
Departments of clinical psychology.....	100.0	(41)	—	(0)	87.8	(36)	12.2	(5)
Psychiatric residency centers.....	93.5	(158)	6.5	(11)	84.6	(143)	15.4	(26)
Schools of law.....	75.3	(61)	24.7	(20)	81.5	(66)	18.5	(15)
Total.....	82.8	(574)	17.2	(119)	77.5	(537)	22.5	(156)
Existing Centers.....	80.8	(21)	19.2	(5)	80.8	(21)	19.2	(5)

^a Percentages are based on responses to the following proposed program (if a Center is established at their university): "Research on causes and types of criminal and delinquent behavior."

^b Percentages are based on responses to the following: "Research on practice decisions, processes and outcomes in work with offenders."

conducting small-scale demonstrations of work with offenders, whereas most college presidents are opposed to a Center at their university conducting such demonstrations.

TABLE 53.—Academic Institutions Recommending That Center Conduct Demonstration Programs of Practice With Offenders

Academic institution	Demonstrations of practice ^a			
	Recommend		Do not recommend	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Colleges and universities	43.8	(156)	56.2	(200)
Schools of social work	80.4	(37)	19.6	(9)
Departments of clinical psychology	53.7	(22)	46.3	(19)
Psychiatric residency centers	72.2	(122)	27.8	(47)
Schools of law	55.6	(45)	44.4	(36)
Total	55.1	(382)	44.9	(311)
Existing Centers	73.1	(19)	26.9	(7)

^a Percentages are based on responses to the following proposed program (if a Center is established in their university): "Small-scale demonstration programs on work with offenders."

The opposition of many college presidents may be based on their disinclination for the university to become directly responsible for offenders. However, three academic units with considerable experience in dealing with client groups are strongly in favor of Center demonstration programs: existing Centers, schools of social work, and psychiatry.

Chart XIII summarizes the program priorities of each agency group for a University Crime and Delinquency Center in their area. It also shows the priorities of each academic group for a Center at their university.

The highest priority of the three criminal justice systems is Center training of agency personnel in the application of professional knowledge to their work with offenders. Next in priority are consultation services and research on criminal etiology.

Each group of academic institutions gives highest priority to Center research programs. They are divided, however, on the type of research that is most important. Schools of social work and law place greatest emphasis on practice research in the administration of justice, whereas the three remaining groups give highest priority to research on the etiology of criminal and delinquent behavior. The second priority for most academic groups is consultation with criminal justice agencies. Center training and demonstration programs are of lower priority to most of the academic institutions.

Differences in priorities among the eight populations do not obscure the overwhelming support of agency and academic groups for the proposed Center programs. *Every population surveyed favored most Center programs.*³

A negative recommendation was given in only 4 out of 48 instances.⁴ In most instances (26 out of 48), there was very strong support for proposed Center programs. This is indicated by approval from 75 percent or more of the particular population.

It should be emphasized that the Center programs described here are not merely a matter of general desirability. They are favored by the criminal justice agencies that would use them in their own particular areas and by the academic institutions that would be responsible for Center programs at their own universities.

The next chapter will describe the administrative structure recommended for University Crime and Delinquency Centers.

³ It should be noted that a few existing Centers are opposed to the proposed programs. This may reflect their negative experience with training and research efforts for this field of criminal justice.

⁴ Six programs were proposed to each of the eight populations. This excludes the responses of existing Centers, which were favorable to all six of the proposed programs.

CHART XIII.—Priorities of Criminal Justice Systems and Academic Institutions for Center Programs

Probation/parole systems		Correctional institution systems		Law enforcement systems		Colleges and universities	
	Percent ^a		Percent ^a		Percent ^a		Percent ^b
Training agency staff.....	90	Training agency staff.....	92	Training agency staff.....	97	Research on etiology.....	77
Research on etiology.....	81	Consultation	84	Research on practice.....	78	Research on practice.....	70
Consultation	74	Research on etiology.....	77	Consultation	76	Consultation	69
Research on practice.....	73	Research on practice.....	75	Research on etiology.....	67	Training agency staff.....	67
Demonstration	71	Training new graduates.....	73	Demonstration	58	Demonstration	44
Training new graduates.....	67	Demonstration	62	Training new graduates.....	43	Training new graduates.....	43
(N=140)		(N=91)		(N=101)		(N=356)	
Schools of social work		Departments of clinical psychology		Psychiatric residency centers		Schools of law	
	Percent ^b		Percent ^b		Percent ^b		Percent ^b
Research on practice.....	91	Research on etiology.....	100	Research on etiology.....	94	Research on practice.....	82
Consultation	87	Research on practice.....	88	Consultation	89	Training new graduates.....	75
Research on etiology.....	85	Consultation	88	Research on practice.....	85	Research on etiology.....	75
Training agency staff.....	83	Training new graduates.....	61	Training agency staff.....	76	Consultation	73
Demonstration	80	Demonstration	54	Training new graduates.....	75	Training agency staff.....	61
Training new graduates.....	70	Training agency staff.....	46	Demonstration	72	Demonstration	56
(N=46)		(N=41)		(N=169)		(N=81)	

^a Percentage of systems recommending this program for a University Crime and Delinquency Center in their areas.

^b Percentage of academic institutions recommending this program for a Crime and Delinquency Center at their university.

A National Network of University Crime and Delinquency Centers: Recommended Administrative Structure

The organizational location and lines of administrative authority for proposed Centers are apt to be of crucial importance. A key question is whether there is reasonable consensus—or sufficient flexibility—among agencies and academic institutions regarding an appropriate administrative structure for the Centers. What administrative location generates the most support among the groups that must be involved in the direction and use of a Center? Are agency and academic executives flexible in their choice of administrative structure, or are they so committed to different structures that accommodation is not possible?

Recommendations of Criminal Justice Agencies and Academic Institutions

Most criminal justice systems favor a Center that would be administered jointly by practice agencies and the university. An average of 53 percent of the systems recommend such an arrangement; indeed, as table 54 shows, more criminal justice systems of each type recommend this joint arrangement than any of the three remaining alternatives.¹

No clear second choice of Center structure emerges from the recommendations of agency executives. A little over one-fourth of the systems recommend that a center be solely responsible to central administration of the university, and about the same proportion favor an autonomous Center that is administratively independent of both practice agencies and the university. Slightly less than one-fourth favor a Center administratively responsible to a particular school or department of the university and not to practice agencies.

¹ Respondents were allowed to recommend more than one type of administrative structure. About one-third of the criminal justice agencies chose to do so.

Academic executives tend to favor two of the different types of Center structure. Almost half recommend that a Center at their university be responsible to a particular school or department. Most law schools favor an arrangement that provides them with administrative responsibility for Centers at their universities.

About a third of the academic institutions approve of a Center directly responsible to central administration of the university rather than of a particular school or department.

The findings in table 55 indicate major differences between academic and criminal justice executives with regard to Center structure. The arrangement favored most by academic institutions is the one favored least by the agencies (Center responsibility to a school or department). The arrangement favored most by criminal justice agencies (joint responsibility for the Center between agencies and school) finds little favor among academics.

Since administrative control is an issue of critical importance, it is necessary to analyze the data on Center structure in greater detail. Each of the four types of administrative structure will be examined separately for the degree of commitment or flexibility generated among its supporters.

Extent and Intensity of Support for Each of Four Administrative Structures

Autonomous Centers. The type of structure that received the least overall support is one that has the Center administratively independent of both practice agencies and the university.

Slightly more than one-fourth of the criminal justice agencies are favorably disposed toward an autonomous Center in their area and only 11 percent of the agencies are committed to this type of

TABLE 54.—Types of Administrative Structure Recommended by Criminal Justice Systems for a Center in Their Area

Type of Center structure	Recommendations of criminal justice systems ^a				
	Probation/ parole	Correctional institutions	Law enforcement	Total	
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Number
Center responsible to criminal justice agencies and a school or department of the university....	48.9	51.1	60.0	52.9	(172)
Center responsible to central administration of the university	25.5	43.2	24.0	29.8	(97)
Autonomous Center administratively independent of agencies and university.....	27.0	30.7	28.0	28.3	(92)
Center responsible to a school or department of the university	26.3	29.5	16.0	24.0	(78)

^a Data are based on responses from top executives of 325 major criminal justice systems as follows: probation/parole systems (137);

correctional institution systems (88); law enforcement systems (100). Multiple recommendations were permitted.

TABLE 55.—Types of Administrative Structure Recommended by Academic Institutions for a Center at Their University
Recommendations of academic institutions^a

Type of Center structure	Colleges and universities	Social work	Clinical psychology	Law	Total	
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Number
Center responsible to a school or department of the university.....	40.5	44.7	42.9	67.1	44.7	(257)
Own school or department.....	—	31.9	28.6	63.3	—	—
Another school or department.....	—	12.8	14.3	3.8	—	—
Center responsible to central administration of the university.....	30.7	48.9	38.1	27.8	32.3	(186)
Center responsible to criminal justice agencies and a school or department of the university.....	19.2	12.8	14.3	11.4	17.2	(99)
Autonomous Center administratively independent of agencies and university.....	8.6	6.4	7.1	26.6	10.8	(62)

^a Data are based on responses from top executives of 575 academic institutions as follows: college and university presidents and department

chairmen (407); school of social work deans (47); clinical psychology chairmen (42); law school deans (79).

structure. About one academic institution in 10 recommends such a Center and less than 6 percent are committed to it. The findings in table 56 indicate that all populations strongly favor some form of Center structure that is not administratively independent of universities and practice agencies.

Law schools are somewhat more favorably disposed to an autonomous Center than are the other academic groups. Even among law schools, however, only one-fourth recommend such a structure and only 14 percent hold strong views in favor of it. There appears to be a difference therefore between the law schools and practitioners of the bar regarding the appropriate structure for a Crime and Delinquency Center.²

Center Administered by Central University Administration. This type of Center structure is the second choice of both practice agencies and academic institutions. It is recommended by almost a third of the agency and university groups.

As table 57 shows, 13 percent of the criminal justice agencies and 19 percent of the academic institutions are committed to having the Center directly responsible to central administration of the university.

²The Radzinowicz report recommended an autonomous "criminological center or institute." The Special Committee on the Administration of Criminal Justice, Association of the Bar of the City of New York, "found itself in complete agreement" on this recommendation "as a matter of strong preference." See Radzinowicz, *op. cit.*, p. iii.

TABLE 56.—Extent and Intensity of Support for an Autonomous Crime and Delinquency Center^a

	Recommend		Do not recommend		Total
	Committed ^b	Flexible ^c	Percent	Percent	
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Number
Criminal justice system:					
Probation/parole.....	15.3	11.7	73.0	100.0	(137)
Correctional institutions.....	15.9	14.8	69.3	100.0	(88)
Law enforcement.....	2.0	26.0	72.0	100.0	(100)
Total.....	11.4	16.9	71.7	100.0	(325)
Academic Institution:					
Colleges and universities.....	4.2	4.4	91.4	100.0	(407)
Schools of social work.....	4.3	2.1	93.6	100.0	(47)
Departments of clinical psychology.....	4.8	2.4	92.9	100.0	(42)
Schools of law.....	13.9	12.7	73.4	100.0	(79)
Total.....	5.6	5.2	89.2	100.0	(575)

^a A Center administratively independent of criminal justice agencies and university.

^b First choice, with "strong views" concerning the desired admin-

istrative structure for the Center.

^c Recommend, but not first choice or no strong views with respect to the choice.

TABLE 57.—Extent and Intensity of Support for a Center Administered by Central University Administration

	Recommend		Do not recommend	Total	
	Committed ^a	Flexible ^b			Number
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	
Criminal justice system:					
Probation/parole.....	4.4	21.2	74.5	100.1	(137)
Correctional institutions.....	25.0	18.2	56.8	100.0	(88)
Law enforcement.....	15.0	9.0	76.0	100.0	(100)
Total.....	13.2	16.6	70.2	100.0	(325)
Academic Institution:					
Colleges and universities.....	15.7	15.0	69.3	100.0	(407)
Schools of social work.....	31.9	17.0	51.1	100.0	(47)
Departments of clinical psychology.....	31.0	7.1	61.9	100.0	(42)
Schools of law.....	20.3	7.6	72.2	100.1	(79)
Total.....	18.8	13.6	67.7	100.1	(575)

^a First choice, with "strong views" about desired administrative structure for the Center.

^b Recommend, but not first choice or no strong views with respect to the choice.

of the Center is not apt to present a serious problem at most institutions.

Center Administered Jointly by Agencies and University. Most criminal justice executives recommend that the Center be jointly responsible to agencies such as their own and a school or department of the university. More than a third of the agencies (37 percent) are committed to this arrangement.

About one-sixth of the academic institutions recommend such a joint administrative structure. Only 9 percent are committed to this type of structure. The professional schools are least in favor of agency participation in the administration of the Center.

The findings in table 59 suggest an important point of strain to be resolved in the formation and operation of Crime and Delinquency Centers. A substantial proportion of criminal justice agencies are intent on having a direct voice in Center policy, whereas relatively few academic institutions—especially the professional schools—are disposed to sharing Center control with the practice agencies.

The data in chart XIV show the extent to which each population is committed to the various forms of Center administrative structure. Criminal justice agencies as a group are considerably more committed to particular structures than are the academic institutions. Seventy percent of the agencies (N=227) expressed a first choice for a particular administrative arrangement and reported that they hold strong views on desired administrative structure for a Center in their area. Fifty-one percent of the academic institutions (N=294) expressed a

first choice and indicated that they hold strong views on desired administrative structure for a Center at their university.

Among the committed criminal justice agencies, a majority (N=120) are intent upon joint administrative control of the Center between agencies and school. Among the committed academic institutions, two administrative forms predominate: (1) a Center responsible directly to central administration of the university; (2) a Center responsible to a school or department of the university.

Correctional institution systems are the most committed group (86 percent). They are split, however, as to whether a nearby Center should be jointly responsible to agencies and a school or responsible solely to central administration of the university.

Law enforcement systems are also highly committed (68 percent). There is substantial consensus among this group for a Center that is jointly responsible to criminal justice agencies and a school or department of the university.

Probation/parole systems are the most flexible of the agency groups (61 percent are committed). Most of those that are committed favor the joint administrative arrangement for the Center.

Among academic institutions, the departments of clinical psychology are most committed to particular forms of Center structure (64 percent). They are almost evenly divided, however, between Center responsibility to central university administration and responsibility to a school or department.

Slightly more than half of the college presidents and department chairmen are committed to one or

TABLE 58.—Extent and Intensity of Support for a Center Administered by a School or Department of the University

	Recommend		Do not recommend	Total	
	Committed ^a	Flexible ^b			Number
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	
Criminal justice system:					
Probation/parole.....	8.8	17.5	73.7	100.0	(137)
Correctional institutions.....	10.2	19.3	70.5	100.0	(88)
Law enforcement.....	6.0	10.0	84.0	100.0	(100)
Total.....	8.3	15.7	76.0	100.0	(325)
Academic Institution:					
Colleges and universities.....	21.4	19.2	59.5	100.1	(407)
Schools of social work.....	4.3	40.4	55.3	100.0	(47)
Departments of clinical psychology.....	21.4	21.4	57.1	99.9	(42)
Schools of law.....	5.1	62.0	32.9	100.0	(79)
Total.....	17.7	27.0	55.3	100.0	(575)

^a First choice, with "strong views" on desired administrative structure for the Center.

^b Recommend, but not first choice or no strong views with respect to the choice.

TABLE 59.—Extent and Intensity of Support for a Center Administered Jointly by Practice Agencies and School or Department of the University

	Recommend		Do not recommend	Total	Number
	Committed ^a	Flexible ^b			
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	
Criminal justice system:					
Probation/parole.....	32.1	16.8	51.1	100.0	(137)
Correctional institutions.....	35.2	16.0	48.9	100.1	(88)
Law enforcement.....	45.0	15.0	40.0	100.0	(100)
Total.....	36.9	16.0	47.1	100.0	(325)
Academic Institution:					
Colleges and universities.....	11.8	7.4	80.8	100.0	(407)
Schools of social work.....	2.1	10.6	87.2	99.9	(47)
Departments of clinical psychology.....	7.1	7.1	85.7	99.9	(42)
Schools of law.....	0.0	11.4	88.6	100.0	(79)
Total.....	9.0	8.2	82.8	100.0	(575)

^a First choice, with "strong views" concerning the desired administrative structure for the Center.

^b Recommend, but not first choice or no strong views with respect to the choice.

another Center structure (53 percent). There is little consensus among them as to which administrative arrangement is most suitable.

The most flexible academic groups are the schools of law and social work. Only 39 percent of the law schools and 42 percent of the social work schools are committed to any particular administrative structure for a Center at their university.

CONCLUSIONS ON CENTER STRUCTURE. The findings in this chapter indicate that administrative location of the Center is apt to present an especially difficult set of problems.

Many criminal justice systems are likely to support and participate in a nearby Center only on condition that agencies such as their own have some administrative control over Center policy. Academic institutions are generally more flexible. Many of them, however, are likely to provide support and resources to a Center only on condition that administrative control be lodged in the university.

Two approaches may resolve this difficulty:

1. Administrative arrangements may be "individualized" to the particular region in which the Center is located. The jointly administered Center may be

established in those areas where it is most strongly supported by criminal justice agencies and relevant academic institutions. In other areas, the Center could be located in administrative relation to a particular school or department of the university. A third pattern could establish the Center as a separate academic unit responsible directly to central administration of the university.

2. A national policy may establish certain basic administrative arrangements to which every Center must adhere. This approach would have to take account of the administrative conditions that are most apt to be politically and programmatically viable. A uniform pattern suggested by the findings involves modified joint administration of the Center. Under a plan of this kind, major administrative control would be lodged in the university but each type of criminal justice system would have direct representation in the governing body of the Center. The interests and views of agencies and academic institutions indicate that an administrative arrangement of this kind is most likely to mobilize support for the Centers and to assure the resources and participation necessary for the success of its programs.

The final chapter will discuss Center staff, stipends, and sources of funding.

CHART XIV.—Types of Center Structure to Which Criminal Justice Systems and Academic Institutions Are Committed

Probation/parole systems		Correctional institution systems		Law enforcement systems		Colleges and universities	
	Percent ^a		Percent ^a		Percent ^a		Percent ^a
Agencies and school	32	Agencies and school	35	Agencies and school	45	School or department	21
Autonomous	15	Central university	25	Central university	15	Central university	16
School or department	9	administration	16	administration	6	administration	12
Central university	4	Autonomous	10	School or department	2	Agencies and school	4
administration	4	School or department	10	Autonomous	2	Autonomous	4
Total committed	60	Total committed	86	Total committed	68	Total committed	53
Total flexible ^b	40	Total flexible	14	Total flexible	32	Total flexible	47
(N=137)	100	(N=88)	100	(N=100)	100	(N=407)	100

Schools of social work		Departments of clinical psychology		Schools of law	
	Percent ^c		Percent ^c		Percent ^c
Central university	32	Central university	31	Central university	20
administration	4	administration	21	administration	14
School or department	4	School or department	7	Autonomous	5
Autonomous	2	Agencies and school	5	School or department	0
Agencies and school	2	Autonomous	5	Agencies and school	0
Total committed	42	Total committed	64	Total committed	39
Total flexible	58	Total flexible	36	Total flexible	61
(N=47)	100	(N=42)	100	(N=79)	100

^a First choice, with strong views on desired administrative structure for a Center in their area.

^b Recommend one or more types of Center structure but have no

first choice and hold no strong views.

^c First choice, with strong views on desired administrative structure for a Center at their university.

A National Network of University Crime and Delinquency Centers: Recommended Staff, Stipends, and Funding

Center Staff

Ideally, a Center staff should include personnel with a wide range of expertise in legal, clinical, and social theory applicable to the field of criminal justice. Center staff should also ideally include personnel with first-hand knowledge of the concrete realities and problems of contemporary practice. Furthermore, Center staff should ideally be skilled in both training and research as applied to criminal justice.

This totality of knowledge, experience, and skill requires a combination of different kinds of criminal justice specialists. Professional schools, such as law, psychiatry, clinical psychology, social work, public administration, and police science, are probably the best available sources for recruiting training and research experts in practice theory as related to criminal justice. Social science departments, such as sociology, criminology, and social psychology, are probably the best available sources for recruiting training and research experts in social theory as related to criminal justice. Agencies of criminal justice, such as law enforcement, the courts, probation, parole, and correctional institution systems are probably the best available sources for recruiting experienced practitioners with first-hand knowledge of contemporary practice.

Should University Crime and Delinquency Centers be interdisciplinary? If so, which personnel group—faculty from professional schools or the social sciences—should be predominant? Should Center staff be interinstitutional, that is, include both

academics and practitioners from criminal justice agencies? To what extent should practitioners be represented on Center staff?

This section will present the recommendations of respondents regarding three sources of personnel for Center staff. Each of the following groups is likely to shape the character and programs of a Center in different ways:

1. Faculty from professional schools concerned with training and research for criminal justice.
2. Faculty from social science departments concerned with training and research for criminal justice.
3. Experienced staff members from criminal justice and related agencies.

The Complete Center. Should the Center staff be both interdisciplinary and interinstitutional? That is, should it include criminal justice specialists from professional schools, social science departments, and practice agencies?

As table 60 indicates, there is divided support for the fully rounded Center staff. Probation/parole and correctional institution systems recommend that Center staff be drawn from all three sources. Professional schools of social work, clinical psychology, and law also favor a Center whose staff is interdisciplinary and interinstitutional. Most law enforcement systems do not recommend a fully rounded Center staff. Most college presidents and department chairmen are also not in favor of a Center staff recruited from all three sources.

The Interdisciplinary Center. Should Center staff draw upon faculty from both the professional

TABLE 60.—*Recommendations That Center Staff Be Drawn from Professional Schools, Social Science Departments, and Criminal Justice Agencies*

	Recommend staff from professional schools, social sciences, and agencies ^a	Do not recommend staff from all three groups	Total	
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Number
Criminal justice system:				
Probation/parole.....	62.7	37.3	100.0	(142)
Correctional institutions.....	73.9	26.1	100.0	(88)
Law enforcement.....	40.2	59.8	100.0	(102)
Total.....	58.7	41.3	100.0	(332)
Academic institution:				
Colleges and universities.....	34.5	65.5	100.0	(359)
Schools of social work.....	60.4	39.6	100.0	(48)
Departments of clinical psychology.....	63.2	36.8	100.0	(38)
Schools of law.....	65.8	34.2	100.0	(76)
Total.....	43.4	56.6	100.0	(521)

^a Includes all three of the following groups: (1) faculty from professional schools concerned with training and research for work with offenders; (2) faculty from social science departments concerned

with training and research for work with offenders; (3) experienced staff from agencies that work with offenders.

TABLE 61.—Recommendations That Center Staff Be Interdisciplinary

	Recommend ^a	Do not recommend ^b	Total	
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Number
Criminal justice system:				
Probation/parole.....	66.9	33.1	100.0	(142)
Correctional institutions.....	76.1	23.9	100.0	(88)
Law enforcement.....	42.2	57.8	100.0	(102)
Total.....	61.7	38.3	100.0	(332)
Academic institution:				
Colleges and universities.....	42.1	57.9	100.0	(359)
Schools of social work.....	77.1	22.9	100.0	(48)
Departments of clinical psychology.....	81.6	18.4	100.0	(38)
Schools of law.....	76.3	23.7	100.0	(76)
Total.....	53.0	47.0	100.0	(521)

^a Recommend that Center staff be drawn from both of the following groups: (1) faculty from professional schools concerned with training and research for work with offenders; (2) faculty from social science departments concerned with training and research for

work with offenders.

^b Excludes professional school faculty or social science faculty or both.

schools and social sciences or should it exclude at least one of these sources for recruitment?

As table 61 shows, most criminal justice systems recommend an interdisciplinary staff for a Center in their area. Law enforcement systems are an exception: 58 percent do not favor an interdisciplinary staff.

More than three-fourths of the professional schools recommend an interdisciplinary staff for a Center at their university. However, most college presidents and department chairmen do not want Center staff to include faculty from both the professional schools and social science departments.

The two populations that oppose an interdisciplinary Center apparently do so for different reasons: law enforcement executives want to exclude social science faculty; college presidents and department chairmen want to exclude professional school faculty.

Of the 59 law enforcement systems opposed to an interdisciplinary Center, 68 percent want to include the professional schools and exclude social scientists. Less than 2 percent want to include social scientists and exclude the professional schools. About 30 percent want to exclude both faculty groups. Law enforcement executives are apparently not convinced that social science is of value for Crime and Delinquency Center training, research, and consultation programs.

Of the 208 college presidents and department chairmen opposed to an interdisciplinary Center at their institution, 55 percent want to include the

social scientists and exclude faculty from the professional schools. About 23 percent want to include the professional schools faculty and exclude social scientists, and 22 percent want to exclude both faculty groups. A likely interpretation of these findings is that many of the junior and senior colleges surveyed do not now have professional schools as part of their organizations but do have various social science departments. It might follow, therefore, that these academic executives are intent on recruiting Center staff from existing faculty at their institutions.

The Interinstitutional Center. Should Center staff be drawn from both academic institutions and criminal justice agencies or should one of these institutions be excluded as a source for recruitment?

As can be seen in table 62, a substantial majority of each population recommends an interinstitutional Center staff drawn from the university faculty and personnel of criminal justice agencies.

Criminal justice systems—especially probation/parole and correctional institution systems—are overwhelmingly in favor (83 percent) of recruiting both academics and agency personnel for a Center in their area.

About two-thirds of the academic groups favor an interinstitutional staff for a Center at their university. Schools of social work and law are more in favor of recruiting Center staff from both faculty and agency personnel than are the other groups.

The Parochial Center. Only a small number of respondents recommend that Center staff be drawn

TABLE 62.—Recommendations That Center Staff Be Interinstitutional

	Recommend ^a	Do not recommend ^b	Total	
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Number
Criminal justice system:				
Probation/parole.....	83.1	16.9	100.0	(142)
Correctional institutions.....	93.2	6.8	100.0	(88)
Law enforcement.....	74.5	25.5	100.0	(102)
Total.....	83.1	16.9	100.0	(332)
Academic institution:				
Colleges and universities.....	61.6	38.4	100.0	(359)
Schools of social work.....	72.9	27.1	100.0	(48)
Departments of clinical psychology.....	68.5	31.5	100.0	(38)
Schools of law.....	77.6	22.4	100.0	(76)
Total.....	65.5	34.5	100.0	(521)

^a Recommend that Center staff be drawn from at least one faculty group concerned with training and research in work with offenders,

and agency practitioners who work with offenders.

^b Excludes faculty or agency practitioners.

TABLE 63.—Recommendations That Center Staff Be Drawn from Single or Multiple Sources

	Recommend staff from single source			Recommend at least two sources	Total	
	Professional schools ^a	Social sciences ^b	Practice agencies ^c		Percent	Number
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Number
Criminal justice system:						
Probation/parole.....	4.9	2.1	5.6	87.3	99.9	(142)
Correctional institutions.....	2.3	1.1	1.1	95.5	100.0	(88)
Law enforcement.....	4.9	1.0	17.6	76.5	100.0	(102)
Total.....	4.2	1.5	8.1	86.1	99.9	(332)
Academic Institution:						
Colleges and universities.....	2.8	15.6	12.5	69.1	100.0	(359)
Schools of social work.....	8.3	2.1	0.0	89.6	100.0	(48)
Departments of clinical psychology.....	5.3	7.9	0.0	86.8	100.0	(38)
Schools of law.....	10.5	0.0	0.0	89.5	100.0	(76)
Total.....	4.6	11.5	8.6	75.3	100.0	(521)

^a Faculty from professional schools concerned with training and research for work with offenders.

^b Faculty from social science departments concerned with training

and research for work with offenders.

^c Experienced staff from agencies that work with offenders.

solely from either the professional schools, social science departments, or criminal justice agencies. These are mainly law enforcement executives, college presidents, and department chairmen.

The catholicity of almost all groups with respect to Center staff is evident from data in table 63. Only 8 percent of the criminal justice systems want center staff to be drawn exclusively from practice agencies such as their own. The proportion of law enforcement systems that favor a parochial Center staff is considerably higher than that for either probation/parole or correctional institution systems.

Less than 10 percent of the professional schools want the staff of a Center at their university to be recruited exclusively from professional schools. College presidents and department heads are somewhat more parochial in their choice of Center staff than are the other groups. Almost 16 percent recommend that a Center at their university be recruited solely from social science departments and another 13 percent favor a staff drawn exclusively from practice agencies.

The overall findings suggest great opposition to a parochial Center staff comprised solely of either professional school faculty, social science faculty, or practitioners from criminal justice agencies.

Predominant Source of Center Staff. As described previously, about four-fifths of all respondents favor at least two sources for recruitment of

Center staff. A substantial majority in each population recommends an interinstitutional Center staff drawn from university faculty and practice agencies. A substantial majority in most populations recommends an interdisciplinary Center staff from the professional schools and social science departments. A smaller majority in most populations recommends that Center staff be drawn from all three sources.

Since it is seldom possible to recruit a perfectly balanced Center staff, which personnel group should predominate? As table 64 shows, most—but not all—populations are in favor of recruiting predominantly from the faculty of professional schools concerned with training and research for work with offenders.

Criminal justice systems generally recommend that a Center in their area recruit staff predominantly from faculty of the professional schools. Law enforcement agencies are an exception: 50 percent recommend a staff made up primarily of practitioners from agencies such as their own and 42 percent recommend a center staff that is predominantly composed of faculty of the professional schools. Relatively few criminal justice systems want Center staff to be comprised primarily of social science faculty.

Schools of law and social work strongly favor a Center staff that is predominantly from the professional schools. Clinical psychology, however, recom-

TABLE 64.—Recommendations for Predominant Source of Center Staff

	Faculty from professional schools ^a	Faculty from social sciences ^b	Agency practitioners ^c	Total	
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Number
Criminal justice system:					
Probation/parole.....	49.3	22.8	27.9	100.0	(136)
Correctional institutions.....	48.9	16.0	35.2	100.1	(88)
Law enforcement.....	42.0	8.0	50.0	100.0	(100)
Total.....	46.9	16.4	36.7	100.0	(324)
Academic Institution:					
Colleges and universities.....	28.7	38.3	33.0	100.0	^d (115)
Schools of social work.....	79.5	16.0	4.5	100.0	(44)
Departments of clinical psychology.....	32.4	61.8	5.9	100.0	(34)
Schools of law.....	81.9	11.1	6.9	99.9	(72)
Total.....	52.1	30.2	17.7	100.0	(265)

^a Faculty from professional schools concerned with training and research for work with offenders.

^b Faculty from social science departments concerned with training and research for work with offenders.

^c Experienced staff from agencies that work with offenders.

^d Limited to colleges and universities that had been cited in earlier studies as offering an "educational program" in one or more of the crime and delinquency fields. Item omitted for other institutions.

mends that social scientists be the predominant personnel in a Center at their university. College presidents and department chairmen are almost evenly divided: 38 percent favor a preponderance of social science faculty, 33 percent favor agency practitioners, and 29 percent favor faculty from the professional schools.

A profile of the Center staff that is recommended by each population is shown in chart XV. This analysis reveals that *the largest proportion of every population favors a Center staff that is both interdisciplinary and interinstitutional*, that is, a Center staff drawn from all three of the following sources: (1) faculty from professional schools concerned with training and research for work with offenders; (2) faculty from social science departments concerned with training and research for work with offenders; and (3) experienced staff from agencies that work with offenders.

Almost all executives who want an interdisciplinary Center also want to include practice agency personnel on the staff. For example, as previously shown, 67 percent of the probation/parole executives favor an interdisciplinary Center. Of these, only 4 percent recommend the exclusion of agency practitioners, whereas 63 percent favor the inclusion of these personnel.

Almost all executives who want an interinstitutional Center staff also want an interdisciplinary staff. For example, as previously shown, 83 percent of the probation/parole executives recommend that Center staff be drawn from the university faculty and practice agencies. Of these, only 20 percent recommend the exclusion of one or another faculty group, whereas 63 percent favor the inclusion of an interdisciplinary faculty from the professional schools and social science departments.

The findings in this section indicate that there is substantial support for a Center staff recruited from three sources: professional school faculty, social science faculty, and practitioners employed in Criminal Justice agencies. There is little support for a Center staff that does not include one or more of these groups.

Center Stipends

An important problem to be faced by all Centers is that of access to key training targets. As was previously shown, almost all criminal justice systems recommend that a nearby Center conduct short-term training programs for personnel of agencies such as their own.¹ And about three-fourths of the professional schools recommend that a Center at their university conduct summer training for new graduates of schools such as their own.²

The realistic limitations of budget and manpower suggest that most criminal justice agencies would find it difficult to release a sizable number of staff members for Center training and continue to pay their salaries. A second target group, recent graduates from professional schools, would naturally be reluctant to postpone further the earning of a full salary as professional practitioners.

One type of remedy that might solve both problems would be a suitable stipend arrangement. Under such an arrangement, the salary of a practitioner engaged in a Center training program would be borne not by the Criminal Justice agency that employs him but by the Federal government through a direct student stipend. A similar stipend would be given to the recent graduate to compensate him for the amount he would otherwise earn as a salaried practitioner.

As table 65 shows, such a stipend arrangement is recommended by 70 percent of the agencies and colleges surveyed on this item. Only 13 percent recommend against the plan. The remaining 17 percent neither favor the Center training stipend nor are they opposed to it.

A system of Federal stipends for Center training is strongly supported by academic and agency administrators. The plan has the added virtue of structuring the student role in accord with the academic rather than in-service training model. The practitioner who receives a training stipend in lieu of a

¹ See "Training Programs for Agency Personnel," chapter 8.

² See "Training Programs for Recent Graduates," chapter 8.

CHART XV.—Profile of Center Staff That Is Recommended by Criminal Justice Systems and Academic Institutions

Probation/parole systems	Percent	Correctional institution systems	Percent	Law enforcement systems	Percent	Colleges and universities	Percent
Interdisciplinary and interinstitutional ^a	63	Interdisciplinary and interinstitutional	74	Interdisciplinary and interinstitutional	40	Interdisciplinary and interinstitutional	35
Interdisciplinary (only) ^b	4	Interdisciplinary (only)	2	Interdisciplinary (only)	2	Interdisciplinary (only)	7
Interinstitutional (only) ^c	20	Interinstitutional (only)	19	Interinstitutional (only)	34	Interinstitutional (only)	27
Parochial ^d	13	Parochial	5	Parochial	24	Parochial	31
(N=142)	100	(N=88)	100	(N=102)	100	(N=521)	100
Schools of social work	Percent	Departments of clinical psychology	Percent	Schools of law	Percent		
Interdisciplinary and interinstitutional	60	Interdisciplinary and interinstitutional	63	Interdisciplinary and interinstitutional	66		
Interdisciplinary (only)	17	Interdisciplinary (only)	19	Interdisciplinary (only)	10		
Interinstitutional (only)	13	Interinstitutional (only)	5	Interinstitutional (only)	13		
Parochial	10	Parochial	10	Parochial	11		
(N=48)	100	(N=38)	100	(N=76)	100		

^a Recommend Center staff from all three sources: (1) faculty from professional schools concerned with training and research for work with offenders; (2) faculty from social science departments concerned with training and research for work with offenders; (3) experienced staff from agencies that work with offenders.

^b Recommend Center staff from both faculty sources but not from practice agencies.

^c Recommend Center staff from practice agencies and one faculty source only.

^d Recommend Center staff from one source exclusively.

salary from his agency is more likely to approach the Center training program as a student rather than as an employee. The suggested stipend plan takes the strain off the budget and workload of criminal justice systems. It anticipates the realistic need for a "residency" stipend for new professional school graduates if they are to engage in post-graduate training. It is designed to ensure Center recruitment of its primary training targets under optimal training conditions.

Center Funding

A national network of University Crime and Delinquency Centers is feasible in the United States—provided Federal funds are made available for this purpose.

The cost of establishing and maintaining a national network of University Crime and Delinquency Centers will vary, of course, with the number of Centers and the scope of their programs. Any serious effort to deal with the massive shortage of qualified criminal justice manpower is going to be expensive. It is highly probable, however, that the kinds of Center training programs previously described will cost considerably less than the price of alternative training programs for additional undergraduates (approximately \$10,000 for a bachelor's degree),³ or additional professionals (conservatively estimated at \$14,500 for a social worker,⁴ \$23,000 for a clinical psychologist,⁵ and \$38,000 for a psychiatrist).⁶

³ See Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, *Projections of Educational Statistics to 1975-76* (Washington, D.C.: 1966 edition), p. 21 and pp. 82-85.

⁴ See "School Costs per M.S.W. Graduate," chapter 5.

⁵ See Training Branch, National Institute of Mental Health, *Survey of Funding and Expenditures for Training of Mental Health Personnel 1960/61* (Washington, D.C.: January, 1963), table 3, p. 5. The cost figures reported are for 1960-61.

⁶ *Ibid.*

The fact that universities simply cannot afford the additional expense required to establish and maintain a Crime and Delinquency Center is shown in table 66. One-sixth (16 percent) of the universities maintain that a Center is not feasible at their institution "under any funding arrangement." Almost half (48 percent) see the need for a Center but would need full Federal funding. About a third are able to pay some share of the cost involved in creating and operating a Center at their institution.

Table 66 reveals an additional finding of central importance. Of the 359 universities, 300 (or 84 percent) are willing to participate in the establishment and maintenance of a Center at their institution.

TABLE 66.—*Proportion of Federal/University Funds Required to Establish and Maintain a University Crime and Delinquency Center for a 3-Year Experimental Period*

Proportion of Federal/university funds required ^a	Percent	Number
100 percent Federal.....	47.9	(172)
75 percent Federal/25 percent university..	27.6	(99)
50 percent Federal/50 percent university..	7.8	(28)
25 percent Federal/75 percent university..	0.3	(1)
Not feasible under any funding arrangement	16.4	(59)
Total academic institutions.....	100.0	(359)

^a Estimated by college and university administrators.

The clearest fact about the funding of University Crime and Delinquency Centers is that they must be subsidized almost entirely by the government. This means that substantial Federal funds are required if a national Center network is to be created and if any kind of overall standards are to apply to its programs, administration, and personnel.

In conclusion, the need and support exist for a national policy that would establish new institutional resources and coordinate the independent efforts of existing organizations to solve the pressing problems entailed in providing qualified manpower for criminal justice.

TABLE 65.—*Recommendations on Federal Stipends for Summer Training at University Crime and Delinquency Center*

	Recommend ^a	Do not recommend		Total	
		Recommend against	Recommend alternatives ^b		
	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Number
Criminal justice system:					
Probation/parole.....	77.2	7.4	15.4	100.0	(136)
Correctional institutions.....	73.9	8.0	18.2	100.1	(88)
Law enforcement.....	63.4	15.1	21.5	100.0	(93)
Academic institution: ^c					
Colleges and universities.....	70.8	14.2	15.0	100.0	(120)
Schools of social work.....	54.2	27.1	18.8	100.1	(48)
Total.....	70.1	12.6	17.3	100.0	(485)

^a Recommend in favor of "study grants equivalent to practitioner salaries for a summer program of specialized training at a University Crime and Delinquency Center."

^b Are neither in favor of nor against proposed form of stipend but recommend alternative stipends.

^c Limited to schools of social work and colleges and universities that had been cited in earlier studies as offering an "educational program" in the crime and delinquency fields. Item omitted for other academic institutions.

Appendices

54-57

Correctional Institution Systems

This volume draws on data from 93 "major" correctional institution systems. "Minor" systems, comprised of jails, workhouses, and detention homes, are not included in this report.¹

A correctional institution system is defined as follows: all prisons, reformatories, jails, workhouses, training schools, camps, halfway houses, diagnostic centers, and other correctional facilities and their personnel which operate as a separate administrative unit under the direction of the same top executive.

The 93 major correctional institution systems for which policy data are reported in this study are of the following types: (1) State systems with facilities for adults, juveniles, or both groups;² (2) county and city training schools for juveniles;³ and (3) private correctional institutions for juveniles.⁴

Table A shows the distribution of these systems by government level and type of facility.

TABLE A.—Major Correctional Institution Systems Represented in the Policy Study, by Level of Government and Type of Facility

Type of correctional institution system	Number	Percent
State systems with facilities designed for:		
Adults ^a only (e.g., prisons and reformatories)	(25)	26.9
Juveniles only (e.g., training schools)	(23)	24.7
Adults and juveniles	(9)	9.7
County and municipal training schools	(14)	15.1
Private institutions for juveniles	(22)	23.7
Total	(93)	100.1

^a Includes "older youth" not classified as juvenile within the responding jurisdiction.

¹ See volume 2 of this series for an analysis of the need for qualified manpower in correctional institutions.

² Drawn from The American Correctional Association, *Directory, State and Federal Correctional Institutions of the United States of America, Canada, England, and Scotland* (Washington, D.C.: 1965).

³ Drawn from Charles E. Lawrence, *Directory of Public Training Schools Serving Delinquent Children* (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Children's Bureau, 1964).

⁴ Drawn from (1) *Directory for Exceptional Children* (Boston: Porter Sargent, 1965); (2) New York State Department of Social Welfare, *Directory of Child-Caring Institutions and Agencies* (New York: 1962).

The 93 systems included in this policy study represent a total of over 400 correctional institution facilities. The mean number of facilities in systems that provide care for adults (adults only, or adults and juveniles) is 8.1. The mean number of facilities in systems that provide care exclusively for juveniles is 2.0 (usually one training school for boys and one for girls).

Table B shows the location of these systems among the nine regions of the country.

TABLE B.—Major Correctional Institution Systems Represented in the Policy Study, by Region

Region ^a	Number	Percent
New England	(10)	10.8
Middle Atlantic	(12)	12.9
East North Central	(13)	14.0
West North Central	(14)	15.1
South Atlantic	(9)	9.7
East South Central	(8)	8.6
West South Central	(2)	2.2
Mountain	(11)	11.8
Pacific	(14)	15.1
Total	(93)	100.2

^a The nine regions correspond to those used by the Federal Bureau of Investigation in their *Uniform Crime Reports*.

A detailed questionnaire of 16 pages (long form) was completed by top executives of the 93 major correctional institution systems referred to in this volume. The questionnaire included a lengthy section eliciting executive recommendations on manpower standards and policy for criminal justice.

Two groups of major correctional institution systems are not represented in this policy analysis: (1) systems responding to a six-page follow-up questionnaire (short form) that did not include executives' recommendations on manpower standards and policy for criminal justice (N=43); (2) major systems that did not respond to project surveys (N=74).

Thus, of the 210 major correctional institution systems in the United States, 64.8 percent (N=136) completed questionnaires for the project, and 44.3 percent reported in depth the recommendations of their executives for qualified manpower in criminal justice (N=93).

Table C compares the 93 major systems with the remaining major systems in the United States.

TABLE C.—Proportion of Major Correctional Institution Systems Whose Executives' Policy Recommendations Are Represented in Study

Type of correctional institution system	Responding systems							
	Policy recommendations represented		Policy recommendations not represented *		Nonresponding systems		Total	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
State and Federal systems:								
Adult.....	61.0	(25)	24.4	(10)	14.6	(6)	100.0	(41)
Juvenile.....	52.3	(23)	20.5	(9)	28.3	(12)	100.1	(44)
Adult and juvenile.....	60.0	(9)	26.7	(4)	13.3	(2)	100.0	(15)
Subtotal.....	57.0	(57)	23.0	(23)	20.0	(20)	100.0	(100)
County and municipal training schools.....	32.6	(14)	32.6	(14)	34.9	(15)	100.1	(43)
Private institutions for juveniles.....	32.9	(22)	9.0	(6)	58.2	(39)	100.1	(67)
Total.....	44.3	(93)	20.5	(43)	35.2	(74)	100.0	(210)

^a Short form questionnaires omitted policy items.

Law Enforcement Systems

This volume draws on data from 108 "major" law enforcement systems.¹

A law enforcement system is defined as follows: all departments, divisions and branch offices of a public organization whose functions include law enforcement and whose personnel were recruited to and operate under the direction of the same top executive.

The criteria for a "major" law enforcement system are as follows: (1) all systems on the State and Federal levels; (2) systems in large counties;² (3) systems in large municipalities.³

The 108 law enforcement systems for which policy data are reported in this volume are classified by level of government in table D.

TABLE D.—Major Law Enforcement Systems Represented in the Policy Study, by Level of Government

Government level	Number	Percent
Federal	(3)	2.8
State	(27)	25.0
County	(12)	11.1
Municipal	(66)	61.1
Total	(108)	100.0

The 108 systems included in this policy study represent over 100,000 law enforcement officers. The mean number of full-time law enforcement staff in these departments is 950.

¹ Drawn from: (1) *Law Enforcement Personnel in the U.S. Government* (unpublished), provided by the Division of Probation, Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts in 1965, and (2) The National Police Chiefs and Sheriffs Information Bureau, *The National Directory of Law Enforcement Administrators* (Milwaukee: 1965).

² Operationally defined as counties whose county seat had a population of 250,000 or more.

³ Cities with a population of 100,000 or more.

Table E shows the distribution of these systems among the nine regions of the United States.

TABLE E.—Major Law Enforcement Systems Represented in the Policy Study, by Region

Region ^a	Number	Percent
New England	(5)	4.6
Middle Atlantic	(11)	10.2
East North Central	(23)	21.3
West North Central	(10)	9.3
South Atlantic	(14)	13.0
East South Central	(7)	6.5
West South Central	(10)	9.3
Mountain	(7)	6.5
Pacific	(18)	16.7
All regions of the United States	(3)	2.7
Total	(108)	100.1

^a The nine regions correspond to those used by the Federal Bureau of Investigation in their *Uniform Crime Reports*.

A detailed questionnaire of 15 pages (long form) was completed by top executives of the 108 major law enforcement systems referred to in this volume. The questionnaire included a lengthy section eliciting executives' recommendations on manpower standards and policy for criminal justice.

Two groups of major law enforcement systems are not represented in this policy analysis: (1) systems responding to a six-page follow-up questionnaire (short form) that did not include executives' recommendations on manpower standards and policy for criminal justice (N=49); (2) major systems that did not respond to project surveys (N=80).

Of the 237 major law enforcement systems in the United States, 66.2 percent (N=157) completed questionnaires for the project and 45.6 percent reported in depth the recommendations of their executives for qualified manpower in criminal justice (N=108).

Table F compares the 108 major systems represented in this policy study with the remaining major systems in the United States.

TABLE F.—Proportion of Major Law Enforcement Systems Whose Executives' Policy Recommendations Are Represented in Study

Type of law enforcement system	Responding systems				Nonresponding systems			
	Policy recommendations represented		Policy recommendations not represented ^a				Total	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Federal	37.5	(3)	12.5	(1)	50.0	(4)	100.0	(8)
State	55.1	(27)	12.2	(6)	32.7	(16)	100.0	(49)
County	25.0	(12)	20.8	(10)	54.2	(26)	100.0	(48)
Municipal	50.0	(66)	24.2	(32)	25.8	(34)	100.1	(132)
Total	45.6	(108)	20.7	(49)	33.8	(80)	100.1	(237)

^a Short-form questionnaires omitted policy items.

Colleges and Universities

This policy study draws on data from 511 colleges and universities in the United States (excluding professional schools). The policy recommendations of college presidents and department chairmen originate from two populations:

(1) Academic departments that had been cited in earlier studies¹ as offering an "educational program" in one or more of the crime and delinquency fields (N=149);

(2) A one-third random sample of accredited colleges and universities, stratified by college level (senior and junior), which had not been cited in earlier studies as offering an "educational program" in any of the crime and delinquency fields (N=362).²

The academic institutions represented in this study are located in 47 States and the District of Columbia.³ California is represented by the largest number of institutions (83), followed by New York (36), Pennsylvania (30), Michigan (22), Illinois (21), and Ohio (21). Those States with the smallest representation are Nevada and Maine (1 each).

¹See Herman Piven and Abraham Alcabes, *Education, Training, and Manpower in Corrections and Law Enforcement*, Source Book I, *op. cit.*, appendix B.

²Drawn from a population of all junior and senior colleges listed in American Council on Education, *American Junior Colleges* (Washington, D.C.: 1963), *American Colleges and Universities* (Washington, D.C.: 1964), and *Lovejoy's College Guide* (New York: Simon and Schuster, 1966). Also included were all institutions identified as offering an undergraduate social welfare program (listed in an untitled directory compiled by the Council on Social Work Education, 1965). Excluded from the population for purposes of drawing the samples were the following categories: (1) colleges or universities not regionally accredited; (2) colleges made up of a single graduate professional school (e.g., law or medicine); (3) institutions previously selected for project mailing by virtue of an undergraduate program in social welfare, or previous designation as offering an "educational program" in the Crime and Delinquency fields.

For project purposes, accredited schools are those academic institutions designated in *Lovejoy's College Guide*, *op. cit.* as having approval and recognition by one of the six regional accrediting associations in the United States. An academic institution which is approved only by a State university, State board, department of education, or a professional association is considered nonaccredited.

³Alaska, Hawaii, and Delaware are not represented.

TABLE I.—Proportion of Academic Institutions Whose Executives' Policy Recommendations Are Represented in Study

College level	Responding institutions							
	Policy recommendations represented		Policy recommendations not represented *		Nonresponding institutions		Total	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Senior.....	61.5	(353)	9.2	(53)	29.2	(168)	99.9	(574)
Junior.....	59.8	(158)	14.4	(38)	25.8	(68)	100.0	(264)
Total.....	61.0	(511)	10.9	(91)	28.2	(236)	100.1	(838)

* Brief form of questionnaire omitted policy items.

Table G below shows the distribution of responding colleges and universities among nine regions of the country.

TABLE G.—Academic Institutions Represented in the Policy Study, by Region

Region *	Number of responding academic institutions	Percent of total
New England	(31)	6.1
Middle Atlantic	(73)	14.3
East North Central.....	(80)	15.7
West North Central.....	(58)	11.4
South Atlantic	(70)	13.7
East South Central.....	(33)	6.5
West South Central.....	(33)	6.5
Mountain	(28)	5.5
Pacific	(105)	20.5
Total	(511)	100.2

* The nine regions correspond to those used by the Federal Bureau of Investigation in their *Uniform Crime Reports*.

As shown in table H, slightly more than two-thirds (69 percent) of the responding academic institutions here reported are 4-year (senior) colleges that offer a baccalaureate degree (N=353). The remaining institutions (31 percent) are 2-year (junior) colleges offering an associate degree (N=158).

TABLE H.—Academic Institutions Classified by College Level

College level	Number	Percent
Senior	(353)	69
Junior	(158)	31
Total	(511)	100

Two groups of academic institutions (other than professional schools) are not represented in this policy analysis: (1) institutions responding to a brief questionnaire that did not include executives' recommendations on manpower standards and educational policy for criminal justice (N=91); (2) academic institutions that did not respond to project surveys (N=236).

Of the 838 academic institutions surveyed for this study, 71.8 percent completed questionnaires for the project, and 61.0 percent reported the recommendations of their executives for qualified manpower in criminal justice (N=511).

As can be seen in table I, the ratio of senior and junior colleges represented in this policy study is very close to the ratio in the academic population.

Professional Schools of Social Work, Clinical Psychology, Psychiatry, and Law

The data on educational policy for the fields of criminal justice were drawn from four populations of professional schools as follows: (1) graduate schools of social work in the United States accredited by the Council on Social Work Education;¹ (2) doctoral clinical psychology programs in the United States approved by the American Psychological Association;² (3) psychiatric residency centers in the United States approved by the Council on Medical Education and the American Board of Psychiatry and Neurology;³ and (4) law schools approved by the American Bar Association.⁴

Schools of social work responding to the project questionnaire are located in 31 States and the District of Columbia. Responding schools of clinical psychology are located in 22 States and the District of Columbia. Psychiatric residency centers are located in 36 States and the District of Columbia, and

responding schools of law are located in 38 States and the District of Columbia. New York is represented by the largest number of schools of social work, clinical psychology, and psychiatric residency centers. California is represented by the largest number of law schools.

The location of professional schools by region is shown in table J.

Policy recommendations in this study are based upon responses to project questionnaires from 361 graduate professional schools in the United States. This represents 73 percent of all approved professional schools in the four populations at the time of survey (March 1966 to February 1967).

Each of the four surveys employed a mail questionnaire of approximately 10 pages. An identical followup was sent to nonrespondents after 6 weeks. Questionnaire items were highly structured and pre-coded. Questionnaires were addressed personally to the following: deans and directors of schools of social work; directors of clinical psychology programs; directors of education programs at psychiatric residency centers; and deans of schools of law. Approximately two-thirds of the questionnaires were filled out by the dean or director; the remainder were completed by respondents in other administrative or teaching positions of the school.

As shown in table K, a high proportion of each professional school population is represented in this policy study.

TABLE J.—Professional Schools Represented in the Policy Study, by Region

Region ^a	Social work		Clinical psychology		Psychiatry		Law	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
New England.....	8	(4)	11	(5)	11	(21)	5	(4)
Middle Atlantic.....	18	(9)	18	(8)	30	(55)	7	(6)
East North Central.....	20	(10)	20	(9)	14	(25)	20	(17)
West North Central.....	14	(7)	16	(7)	9	(17)	14	(12)
South Atlantic.....	14	(7)	9	(4)	13	(23)	18	(15)
East South Central.....	2	(1)	5	(2)	3	(5)	6	(5)
West South Central.....	10	(5)	9	(4)	5	(10)	10	(8)
Mountain.....	4	(2)	7	(3)	3	(5)	8	(7)
Pacific.....	10	(5)	5	(2)	13	(23)	11	(9)
Total.....	100	(50)	100	(44)	100	(184)	100	(83)

^a The nine regions correspond to those utilized by the Federal Bureau of Investigation in their *Uniform Crime Reports*.

TABLE K.—Proportion of Professional Schools Whose Executives' Policy Recommendations Are Represented in Study

Professional school	Respondents		Nonrespondents		Total	
	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number
Social work.....	86	(50)	14	(8)	100	(58)
Clinical psychology.....	66	(44)	34	(23)	100	(67)
Psychiatry.....	79	(184)	21	(50)	100	(234)
Law.....	62	(83)	38	(50)	100	(133)
Total.....	73	^a (361)	27	(131)	100	(492)

^a Excludes 13 returns after Feb. 15, 1967, the cutoff date for computer analysis.

Existing University Crime and Delinquency Centers

Each of the 26 existing Crime and Delinquency Centers for which policy data are reported in this study was required to meet the following criteria:

1. that it exist as a distinct organizational unit other than an academic department of a college or university

2. that it be responsible to either central administration and/or a school or department of a college or university

3. that it offer training courses, institutes, or workshops for at least one of the following groups during the academic years 1965-66 or 1966-67:¹

Law enforcement personnel (i.e., administrators, police officers—adult division, and police officers—juvenile division)

Court personnel (i.e., judges in criminal, juvenile, or family courts, prosecuting attorneys, and public defender attorneys)

Probation and parole personnel (i.e., administrators, parole board members, probation/parole officers—adult division, and probation/parole officers—juvenile division)

Correctional institution personnel (i.e., administrators, cottage parents, correctional officers, classification and assignment personnel, diagnostic and treatment personnel, and general counseling personnel)

Faculty of the college or university

The Centers for which policy data are reported are located in 17 States and the District of Columbia. Four Centers are found in California and three in Ohio. Illinois, Texas, and the District of Columbia each have two centers. The remaining centers are located in 13 different States.²

The distribution of centers among the nine regions of the country is shown in table L. Seven of the Centers, representing the largest regional concentration, are found in the East North Central region. Three regions (New England, East South

TABLE L.—Existing University Centers Classified by Region

Region ^a	Number	Percent
New England	(1)	3.8
Middle Atlantic	(2)	7.7
East North Central.....	(7)	26.9
West North Central.....	(3)	11.5
South Atlantic	(4)	15.4
East South Central.....	(1)	3.8
West South Central.....	(3)	11.5
Mountain	(1)	3.8
Pacific	(4)	15.4
Total	(26)	99.8

^a The nine regions correspond to those used by the Federal Bureau of Investigation for purposes of their *Uniform Crime Reports*.

¹ This criterion excludes organizations engaged in research, consultation, or related activities but not directly engaged in training personnel for criminal justice.

² Georgia, Kansas, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, New York, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Utah, and Wisconsin.

Central, and Mountain) are represented by one Center each. The other sixteen Centers are fairly evenly distributed among the remaining regions.

A majority of Centers (21) are located at a senior college or a graduate professional school. The distribution of Centers by the level of the college or university at which they are located is shown in table M.

TABLE M.—Existing University Centers Classified by Level of College at Which They Are Located

College level	Number	Percent
Junior college	(3)	11.5
Senior college ^a	(14)	53.8
Graduate professional school.....	(7)	26.9
Unclear	(2)	7.7
Total	(26)	99.9

^a These do not include Centers located at graduate professional schools.

Data for this policy study were drawn from 26 of the 75 organizations originally presumed to be University Crime and Delinquency Centers.³ Table N classifies the 75 organizational units included in the original mailing. About a third of these organizations (N=27) met project criteria for a University Crime and Delinquency Center. Twenty-three Centers offered training programs during both the 1965-66 and 1966-67 academic years. One Center was operative during the 1965-66 academic year but terminated at the end of that year. Three Centers did not begin training operations until September 1966.

TABLE N.—Classification of Organizational Units Previously Cited^a as Special University Centers for Training in the Criminal Justice Fields

Type of organizational unit	Number	Percent
Special university Centers for criminal justice training ^b	(26)	34.7
Academic departments for criminal justice training	(32)	42.7
Centers not at a university, or university Centers in fields other than criminal justice	(10)	13.3
Special university Centers for criminal justice terminated prior to 1965-66.....	(3)	4.0
Special university Centers for criminal justice research (only).....	(2)	2.7
No response	(1)	1.3
Late response (Center for criminal justice training)	(1)	1.3
Total	(75)	100.0

^a Cited in the literature.

^b Excluding one Center whose questionnaire was returned after the cutoff date for computer analysis.

Thus, the policy recommendations of executives from 26 of the 27 known Centers (96 percent) are reported in this study.

³ A review of earlier studies and the relevant literature yielded a preliminary list of 75 "centers" which were cited as offering training for the criminal justice fields in the academic years 1965-66 or 1966-67. Questionnaires were mailed to the directors or administrative heads of each "center."

Questionnaires

PROBATION/PAROLE SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK

AGENCY TRAINING IN PROBATION AND PAROLE 1965-1966

PILOT STUDY OF CORRECTIONAL TRAINING AND MANPOWER

Sponsored by the National Council on Crime and Delinquency,
and Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, H.E.W.

As a responding agency, you will be entitled to a copy of our study report on trends in correctional manpower and training in U.S. universities and agencies.
If you would like a copy of this report, be sure to check on the final page of the questionnaire.

All the information needed in this questionnaire can be provided simply by **checkmarks** or an occasional brief phrase.

1) Please compare the manpower and workload situation of your agency in 1964 and 1965.*

***For project purposes, your agency is meant to include: all departments and branch offices of your organization whose personnel are recruited to and operate under the direction of the same top probation/parole executive.**

An "In-Service" training program consists of a scheduled series of teaching sessions which are organized and conducted under the sole auspices of your agency. In-Service teaching sessions may be limited to particular personnel of your own agency or may be open to employees of other correctional agencies.

Examples of "General" training programs are: supervisory conferences, special lectures or seminars, and short-term institutes or workshops.

1) A. Please indicate your agency's general training programs for 1965 and 1966.

66

C. Is your agency willing to provide facilities for field work training if students are made available?

- ☐ a) Yes, in 1966 _____ (number of students)
☐ b) Not in 1966, but perhaps in the following year
☐ c) Not interested

D. From which university department(s) would you be willing to accept students for field work training in your agency?

In-Service Training Programs In 1965

(If your agency did not conduct any In-Service training programs in 1965, please check here and continue with p. 7 on In-Service Training Plans for 1966. ☐)

3) A. What was the total number of complete In-Service training programs your agency conducted in 1965 for all personnel groups*? _____

(number of programs)

* If a complete program was repeated, count it twice.

B. How many In-Service training programs did you conduct for the following personnel groups in 1965?

Number of programs
made up mainly of
this personnel group *

Personnel (full-time only)

- a) "Trainees" . . . (employees who will become professional staff members upon completion of their on-the-job training apprenticeship) _____
b) "New" Practitioners . . . (members of their professional staff for less than 6 months) _____
c) "Experienced" Practitioners . . . (members of their professional staff for at least 6 months) _____
d) Supervisors _____
e) Administrators _____

C. How many of these personnel were enrolled in all of your 1965 In-Service training programs?

Number enrolled
(approximate)

- a) "Trainees" _____
b) "New" Practitioners _____
c) "Experienced" Practitioners _____
d) Supervisors _____
e) Administrators _____

4) How long did your In-Service training program(s) last in 1965?

- a) Program(s) for the "Trainees" usually lasted about _____ hours a week for _____ weeks.
b) Program(s) for the "New" practitioners usually lasted about _____ hours a week for _____ weeks.
c) Program(s) for the "Experienced" practitioners usually last about _____ hours a week for _____ weeks.

5) In general, what was the most typical educational background of the personnel who were enrolled in your 1965 In-Service training program(s)?

- | | "Trainees"
(check one) | "New"
Practitioners
(check one) | "Experienced"
Practitioners
(check one) |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------------------|---|
| a) High school diploma | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b) Some college | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) B.A. in Sociology or Psychology | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d) B.A. in Corrections or Social Work | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| e) Other B.A. or B.S. | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| f) Master's in Corrections | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| g) Master's in Social Work | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| h) Other graduate degree | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

6) Which of the following procedures was primarily used to select the employee for his In-Service training program during 1965?

- | | For "Trainees"
(check one) | For "New"
Practitioners
(check one) | For "Experienced"
Practitioners
(check one) |
|---|-------------------------------|---|---|
| a) Employee selected automatically; new to his particular job | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b) Employee selected automatically; by training and/or experience | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) Employee selected by judgment of agency supervisor | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d) Other procedures | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

7) A. How often did your agency have a problem with absenteeism from your 1965 training sessions?

☐ FREQUENTLY ☐ SELDOM ☐ NEVER

B. Which one of the following comes closest to the usual practice of your agency during 1965 when an employee was frequently absent from training sessions?

- | | (check one) |
|---|--------------------------|
| a) No action | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b) Employee cautioned and his supervisor notified | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) Employee rebuked and his supervisor asked to account for his absence | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d) Employee asked to resign | <input type="checkbox"/> |

8) A. How many employees of your agency had training assignments in 1965?

No. of employees

- _____ a) Training assignments exclusively.
_____ b) Some training assignments—with main assignment as administrator.
_____ c) Some training assignments—with main assignment as supervisor of practitioner.
_____ d) Some training assignments—with main assignment as practitioner.

B. Does your agency have a central Training Unit (Training Center, Training Department, etc.) to plan and organize training throughout the agency?

☐ YES ☐ NO

9) A. Who did most of the planning and organizing of your training program(s) during 1965?

(name of person)

(position in agency)

B. Highest university degree he obtained (circle one):

Associate Bachelor's Master's Doctorate

10) Did you use any outside instructors in your 1965 training sessions?

(field)

Number of persons

- a) Staff or administrators from agencies related to your own (e.g., judge, V.A., psychiatrist).....
b) University faculty members.....
c) Other (please specify).....

11) What modes of instruction did you use most frequently in 1965?

Used most frequently
(check no more than 3)

Most effective
(check one only)

- a) Discussion of assigned cases or readings.....
b) Combined lecture and discussion.....
c) Direct field observation of community conditions and facilities.....
d) Live examples of actual practice.....
e) Classroom simulation of practice.....
f) Film, TV, recordings.....

☐
☐
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☐
☐
☐
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☐
☐

12) Please check those topics which were included in your 1965 In-Service training curricula.

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Casework methods | <input type="checkbox"/> Cultural characteristics of offenders |
| <input type="checkbox"/> The Pre-sentence report | <input type="checkbox"/> Techniques for controlling the offender |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Interviewing techniques | <input type="checkbox"/> Recent criminological research |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Personality of offenders | <input type="checkbox"/> Community resources for referral |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Pre-parole planning | <input type="checkbox"/> Agency promotions, vacations, travel expenses |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Procedures for revocation | <input type="checkbox"/> Operations of the paroling body |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Operation of the court | <input type="checkbox"/> Conditions of probation |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Agency history and philosophy | <input type="checkbox"/> Conditions of parole |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Human growth and behavior | <input type="checkbox"/> Probation—Parole and the law |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Appropriate use of firearms | <input type="checkbox"/> Impact of the community on the offender |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Interrogation techniques | <input type="checkbox"/> Practitioner's role as community change agent |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Surveillance techniques | <input type="checkbox"/> Laws and rules of evidence |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Group Work methods | <input type="checkbox"/> Techniques and mechanics of arrest |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Role of Prosecuting Attorney | <input type="checkbox"/> Prison and detention facilities |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Role of law enforcement | <input type="checkbox"/> Laws of arrest, search and seizure |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Dictation and running records | <input type="checkbox"/> Civil rights and liberties of offenders |

13) For each pair of statements below, please check which one fits better as a description of your 1965 In-Service training program(s).

A. The major emphasis of our curriculum content was on:

- a) Descriptions and explanations of the nature of criminal activity.
b) Principles and suggestions for direct practice with suspected or adjudicated offenders.
☐ Statement (a) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.
☐ Statement (b) fits better.

B. Our instruction was intended mainly:

- a) To better prepare employees for the conditions of correctional practice which apply in a particular area or system.
b) To better prepare employees for the conditions of practice which apply generally in the correctional field.
☐ Statement (a) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.
☐ Statement (b) fits better.

C. Our instruction was primarily designed to provide:

- a) A general introduction—or overview—to the job of a probation-parole practitioner.
b) Detailed information and procedures for carrying out the job of a probation-parole practitioner.
☐ Statement (a) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.
☐ Statement (b) fits better.

D. As a guide to practitioner conduct, our instruction emphasized the desirability of relying on:

- a) Agency rules, and suggestions from administrators in the employing agency.
b) Professional codes, and suggestions from colleagues in the profession.
☐ Statement (a) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.
☐ Statement (b) fits better.

14) A. What means did you use to appraise your training program(s) in 1965?
(check as many boxes as apply)

- a) Verbal reports from.....
b) Written reports from.....
c) Questionnaires from.....
d) Other (specify).....

Training staff	Employees in training	Administrative staff	Research staff
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

B. How would you rate the adequacy of your agency's resources for training in 1965?

- ☐ Highly Adequate ☐ Somewhat Adequate ☐ Not Adequate

C. How effective were your training programs considering the resources at the disposal of your agency in 1965?

- ☐ Highly Effective ☐ Somewhat Effective ☐ Not Effective

In-Service Training Plans for 1966

15) A. Does your agency plan to conduct any In-Service training programs during 1966? (If not, please check here and continue with p. 8 on Training Outside Your Agency. ☐)

We plan
programs for
these personnel

(check as many as apply)

Personnel (full-time only)

- ☐ "Trainees" . . . (who will become professional staff after training).
☐ "New" Practitioners . . . (on their professional staff less than 6 months).
☐ "Experienced" Practitioners . . . (on their professional staff at least 6 months).
☐ Supervisors
☐ Administrators
☐ Other (specify)

B. Approximately how many of these personnel do you expect to be enrolled in *all* of your 1966 In-Service training programs?

- | | <i>Expected enrollment</i> |
|-------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| a) "Trainees"..... | _____ |
| b) "New" Practitioners..... | _____ |
| c) "Experienced" Practitioners..... | _____ |
| d) Supervisors..... | _____ |
| e) Administrators..... | _____ |
| f) Other..... | _____ |
- C. How long do you expect your 1966 In-Service training program(s) to last?
- a) Program(s) for "Trainees" will usually last about _____ hours per weeks for _____ weeks.
- b) Program(s) for "New" practitioners will usually last about _____ hours per week for _____ weeks.
- c) Program(s) for "Experienced" practitioners will usually last about _____ hours per week for _____ weeks.

**SECTION III:
TRAINING OUTSIDE YOUR AGENCY: 1965 AND 1966**

"Training Outside Your Agency" consists of training programs for your staff and/or staff of related agencies conducted by—or co-sponsored with—organizations other than your own.

- 1) Did your agency participate with other organizations in training your staff in 1965?
- a) Training by or with a university (e.g., special courses or institutes for which the university does not give credit toward a degree). ☐ NO
☐ YES _____
(name of university)
- b) Training by or with a professional association (e.g., State Probation and Parole Association). ☐ NO
☐ YES _____
(name of professional association)
- c) Training by or with a correctional agency other than your own (e.g., county probation officers attending a program of the State Probation Dept.). ☐ NO
☐ YES _____
(name of correctional agency)
- d) Training by or with a special government training unit (e.g., Personnel Department). ☐ NO
☐ YES _____
(name of government training unit)
- e) Training by or with organizations other than those mentioned above.
☐ YES _____
(name of organization)

2) Which arrangements does your agency provide for the outside training of your staff? (check as many as apply)

	Were provided in 1965	Will be provided in 1966
a) Time to attend special lectures or seminars.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) Time to attend special training courses conducted by other correctional agencies.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) Time to attend special (non-credit) courses in corrections at a university.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d) Both time and expenses to attend short-term institutes or workshops.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e) Both time and tuition to attend university courses for credit on a part-time basis.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f) Scholarships to attend a university degree program full-time while on leave.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g) Work-study grants to attend a university degree program full-time while maintaining a partial agency workload.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**SECTION IV:
TRAINING COSTS AND RESOURCES**

1) Please estimate the total expenditure of your agency for training in 1965 and 1966.

	Actual costs in 1965	Probable costs in 1966
A. <i>Dollar Costs</i> (if none, write "0")		
a) Total funds budgeted to your agency for training.....	\$ _____	\$ _____
b) Funds received from external sources such as foundations (please specify).....	\$ _____	\$ _____

Estimated
number of full days
1965 1966

- B. *Contributions of Training Time* (if none, write "0")
- a) Contributions (without training pay from your agency) by personnel from agencies related to your own.....
- b) Contributions (without training pay from your agency) by university faculty.....
- 2) Please check which of the following factors either helped or hindered you in planning or organizing all training program(s) for your agency in 1965:

A. Availability of Resources

	Helped	Hindered
a) Availability of funds	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) Availability of space	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) Availability of good training staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d) Availability of university resources	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e) Availability of professional resources	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f) Availability of consultation on training	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g) Other important resource	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
B. Attitudes and Actions of:		
a) Members of your legislature	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) Staff in the budget department	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) Staff in the Personnel department	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d) Administrators in other correctional agencies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e) Administrators in other social agencies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f) Supervisors in your agency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g) Practitioners in your agency	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
h) Judges in your courts	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
i) Members of your Parole Board	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
j) Other important persons or organizations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

SECTION V:
NEW TRAINING GRANTS AND PROGRAMS

1) A. If Congress were to consider allocating special grants for *agency-based* training of correctional manpower, how would you recommend that this money be distributed?

	Recommended	Not recommended
a) On a 50/50 matching basis to training agencies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) On the basis of acceptable training proposals	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) On the basis of staff size	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d) On a priority basis to agencies starting new training programs	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e) On a priority basis to agencies with a full-time training staff	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

B. Which of the above are your preferred choices?

a b c d e
(circle no more than two)

2) How are you prepared to use additional training funds if they are made available to your agency by Congress? (check as many as apply)

- ☐ a) Salaries for additional training staff.
- ☐ b) Funds for additional physical facilities.
- ☐ c) Salaries for additional staff to cover workloads in order to release employees for training.
- ☐ d) Travel and related expenses for staff to attend training institutes conducted by other organizations.
- ☐ e) Funds for staff to attend university degree programs relevant for correctional practice.
- ☐ f) Our agency is not now interested in federal funds for additional training.

3) Which *educational background* do you consider the most suitable for a position as training leader in your agency? (Assume 5 years of correctional experience) (check one only)

- ☐ a) Master of Arts degree in Sociology.
- ☐ b) Master of Arts degree in Corrections.
- ☐ c) Master of Arts degree in Social Work.
- ☐ d) Master of Arts degree in Police Science.
- ☐ e) Master of Arts degree in Public Administration.
- ☐ f) Other Master's degree

4) Which *work background* do you consider the most suitable for a position as training leader in your agency? (Assume this experience is combined with the education you desire.) (check one)

- ☐ a) 5 years experience as a practitioner in your own agency.
- ☐ b) 5 years experience as a practitioner in a good correctional agency other than your own.
- ☐ c) 5 years experience as a correctional practitioner and training leader in a good social welfare agency.
- ☐ d) 5 years experience as a correctional practitioner and faculty member in a university department of corrections.
- ☐ e) 5 years experience as a correctional practitioner and faculty member in a university school of social work.

5) A. If Congress were to consider allocating special funds for *university-based* training of correctional manpower, how would you recommend that this money be distributed?

	Recommended	Not recommended
a) \$3,600 scholarships distributed by correctional agencies to employees on leave as full-time students	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) \$3,600 scholarships distributed by university departments designated as appropriate for correctional training	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) Work-study grants to match salaries of agency employees who enroll as full-time students while maintaining a partial agency workload	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d) Study grants to match salaries of agency employees who attend school full-time without any agency workload	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e) Study grants (equivalent to practitioner salaries) for a summer program of specialized training at a University Correctional Training Center	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

B. Which of the above are your preferred choices?

a b c d e
(circle no more than two)

- 6) If Congress were to consider establishing a National Institute of Law Enforcement, Criminal Justice and Corrections—following the pattern of the National Institutes of Mental Health—would you approve such a development?
- ☐ a) Strongly approve ☐ c) Moderately disapprove
☐ b) Moderately approve ☐ d) Strongly disapprove
☐ e) Indifferent or can't say

- 7) A. Do you think it important that a University Center for Training and Research in Law Enforcement, Criminal Justice and Corrections be established in your area?

- ☐ a) Extremely important ☐ c) Somewhat important
☐ b) Quite important ☐ d) Not at all important

- B. If a university in your area were to establish such a Center, what would you recommend to be included in its program?

- | | Recommended
(check as many as apply) |
|--|---|
| a) Research on causes and types of criminal and delinquent behavior..... | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b) Research on correctional decisions, processes and outcomes..... | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) Summer training programs on the application of professional knowledge to correctional practice for graduating students of professional schools..... | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d) Short-term training programs for agency personnel on the application of professional knowledge to their correctional roles..... | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| e) Consultation with agencies on innovations of correctional programs, roles and research..... | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| f) Small-scale demonstration programs in correctional practice..... | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- C. Which of the above are your preferred choices? a b c d e f
(circle no more than two)

- D. How many university students who are interested in correctional work do you think would profit from special courses offered by a University Center in your area?

- ☐ All ☐ Many ☐ A Few ☐ None

- 8) A. If such a Center were to be established at a university in your area, what personnel would you recommend for its staff?

- | | Recommended
(check as many as apply) |
|--|---|
| a) Faculty from those professional schools concerned with correctional training and research | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b) Faculty from those social science departments concerned with correctional training and research | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) Experienced staff from correctional and related agencies..... | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- B. Which of the above do you think should make up the greatest percentage of Center staff? (circle one only) a b c

- 9) A. What administrative structure would you recommend for such a University Center? (Check here if you feel you have no strong views on desired Center structure ☐)

- | | Recommended
(check as many as apply) |
|--|---|
| a) A Center responsible to central university administration..... | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b) A Center responsible to a university school or department..... | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) A Center responsible to correctional agencies and a university school or department..... | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d) An autonomous Center which is administratively independent of the university and correctional agencies..... | <input type="checkbox"/> |

- B. Which of the above would be your first choice? a b c d
(circle one only)

- 10) Assume that substantially greater funds and facilities were made available to educate personnel for the positions listed below. Which University Program Area(s) would you then advocate for each personnel group?

University Program Areas

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Criminology | 7. Psychology—general |
| 2. Corrections | 8. Psychology—clinical |
| 3. Law—general | 9. Public Administration |
| 4. Law—criminal | 10. Social Work |
| 5. Police Science | 11. Sociology—general |
| 6. Psychiatry | |

Select (by number from 1–11) the University Program Areas which you advocate for each personnel group.

	<i>University Program Area in which you strongly advocate a degree (select one Area only)</i>	<i>University Program Area(s) in which you strongly advocate a series of courses (select as many Areas as apply)</i>
A. Law Enforcement Personnel		
a) Administrative personnel	_____	_____
b) Police officers—adult division	_____	_____
c) Police officers—juvenile division	_____	_____
B. Court Personnel		
a) Judges in criminal courts	_____	_____
b) Judges in juvenile or family courts	_____	_____
c) Prosecuting Attorneys	_____	_____
d) Public Defender Attorneys	_____	_____
C. Probation and Parole Personnel		
a) Administrative personnel	_____	_____
b) Probation/Parole officers—adult division	_____	_____
c) Probation/Parole officers—juvenile division	_____	_____

D. Personnel in Juvenile Institutions

- a) Administrative personnel
b) Cottage parents
c) Classification and Assignment personnel
d) Diagnostic and Treatment personnel

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

E. Prison and Reformatory Personnel

- a) Administrative personnel
b) Correctional Officers
c) Classification and Assignment personnel
d) Diagnostic and Treatment personnel
e) General Counseling personnel

_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____

GENERAL INFORMATION

1) A. What are current salary levels in your agency?

- a) Beginning salary for "Trainees" \$ **Annual salary**
b) Beginning salary for "Line Practitioners" \$
c) Average salary for "Line Practitioners" after 5 years with your agency (approximate) \$
d) Beginning salary for Supervisors \$

B. In your judgment, what salary level would be necessary for you to fill staff vacancies with optimal personnel?

- a) Beginning salary for "Trainees" \$
b) Beginning salary for "Line Practitioners" \$
c) Average salary for "Line Practitioners" after 5 years with your agency (approximate) \$
d) Beginning salary for Supervisors \$

Check here if your agency would like a copy of our study report. ☐

2) Name of Agency _____ (main address)

3) A. Type of Agency (check one only)

- ☐ Probation Only ☐ Parole Only ☐ Both Probation and Parole

B. Type of Caseload (check one only)

- ☐ Adult Only ☐ Juvenile Only ☐ Both Adult and Juvenile

4) Your Name _____ Position _____
(please print)

COMMENTS: (Optional)

**EDUCATION FOR CORRECTIONS
IN
GRADUATE SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK**

PILOT STUDY OF CORRECTIONAL TRAINING AND MANPOWER

Sponsored by the National Council on Crime and Delinquency,
and Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, H.E.W.

As a respondent in professional education, you will be entitled to a copy of our study report on education and manpower for work with offenders throughout the United States.

If you would like a copy of this report, be sure to check on the final page of the questionnaire.

All the information needed in this questionnaire can be provided simply by check-marks or an occasional brief phrase.

SECTION I:

EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS FOR WORK WITH OFFENDERS: 9/1/65-9/1/66

This section is concerned with your classroom and field work courses for social work practice in Correctional settings. For project purposes, these settings include probation, parole, correctional institutions, and other programs directed to the prevention, care and treatment of delinquents and offenders.

1) A. How many students will be awarded a Master's degree through your School this academic year?

_____ (approximate number)

B. Approximately, what proportion of these students are trained so they can practice in Correctional settings?

None 25% 50% 75% All

(circle one)

- 2) A. What is the total number of credit courses offered in your Master's degree program this academic year? (Count each separate course offered to either first or second year students.)

_____ (number of separate courses)

- B. Approximately, what proportion of these courses help to train students for practice in Correctional settings?

None 25% 50% 75% All
(circle one)

- 3) A. Does your Master's degree program this year include any field work placements in Correctional settings? (check as many as apply)

- ☐ a) Not during this academic year, 1965-66.
☐ b) Yes; for first year students.
☐ c) Yes; for second year students.

- B. Does your Master's degree program for this academic year include any classroom courses in Corrections? (For project purposes, these are courses specifically designed to train students for practice or administration of programs in the prevention, care and treatment of delinquents and criminals.) (check as many as apply)

- ☐ a) No classroom course in Corrections; material included in our generic classroom courses.
☐ b) No classroom course in Corrections; material included in field work in Correctional settings.
☐ c) Yes, we offer _____ classroom courses in Corrections.
(number)

- 4) Does your Master's degree program for this academic year include any classroom courses in Criminology/Social Deviance? (For project purposes, these are courses to study the causes and responses to crime and delinquency as social or psychological phenomena.) (check as many as apply)

- ☐ a) No classroom courses in Criminology/Social Deviance; material included in our generic courses.
☐ b) No classroom courses in Criminology/Social Deviance; material covered in our courses in Corrections.
☐ c) No classroom courses in Criminology/Social Deviance; material covered in our courses in Social Science.
☐ d) Yes, we offer _____ classroom courses in Criminology/Social Deviance.
(number)

- 5) What is the current size of your faculty?

- a) _____ Full-time faculty of your School.
(number)
b) _____ Part-time faculty of your School.
(number)

- 6) A. What is the approximate proportion of your Master's degree students who are receiving a scholarship worth \$1,000 or more for this academic year?

None 25% 50% 75% All
(circle one)

- B. What is the approximate proportion of your Master's degree students who are receiving a scholarship worth \$3,600 or more for this academic year?

None 25% 50% 75% All
(circle one)

- 7) A. Will your School's resources be more or less extensive in the coming academic year for field work and classroom courses in Corrections and Criminology/Social Deviance?

	More in 1966-67	About the same	Less in 1966-67
a) Field placements in Correctional agencies	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) Classroom courses at the Master's level	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) Number of Master's students in these courses	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d) Number of full-time faculty for these courses	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e) Research projects in these fields	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

- B. Please check those kinds of new courses your School will add to its curriculum in the coming year, 1966-67.

- ☐ a) Classroom course(s) in Corrections.
☐ b) Classroom course(s) in Criminology/Social Deviance.
☐ c) Field placement(s) in new Correctional agencies.

SECTION II:

CURRENT COURSES IN CORRECTIONS AND CRIMINOLOGY/SOCIAL DEVIANCE

(If your Master's program does not offer field or classroom courses in Corrections or Criminology/Social Deviance, please check here and continue with Special Programs on page 6. ☐)

- 1) A. What is the total number of field placement hours required by your School for the Master's degree?

_____ (number of hours)

- B. Approximately how many students in your Master's program have field work placements in Correctional agencies?

- a) _____; b) _____
(number of first-year students) (number of second-year students)

- 2) A. In which types of field work agencies are your students located during this academic year?

- a) Approximate number of Probation/Parole agencies
b) Approximate number of Correctional institutions
c) Approximate number of other Correctional agencies

- B. What proportion of these agencies provide a member of their staff to instruct your students in field work?

None 25% 50% 75% All
(circle one)

- 3) A. How many of your faculty members have as their major assignment the instruction of students in Correctional field placements?

_____ (approximate number of faculty)

- B. Is there a faculty member in your School who has full-time responsibility for planning and organizing field work placements? ☐ Yes ☐ NO

4) A. What is your total enrollment in the following classroom courses:

Approximate
number of students

- a) Master's level courses in Corrections.....
b) Master's level courses in Criminology/Social Deviance.....

B. Please check the types of positions usually filled by those of your students who go into Corrections upon graduation from the Master's program.

Type of position
(check as many as apply)

- a) Probation or Parole Officer.....
b) Supervisor or Administrator in Probation and Parole.....
c) Correctional Institution staff member.....
d) Supervisor or Administrator in Correctional Institution.....
e) Other Correctional position.....

☐
☐
☐
☐
☐

5) Of those who are teaching classroom courses in Corrections and/or Criminology/Social Deviance, how many are considered by your University Administration as:

a) _____ Full-time faculty of your school.
(number)

b) _____ Part-time faculty of your school.
(number)

c) _____ Faculty members whose assignments are mainly in other departments or schools of the University.
(number)

6) A. Which educational background do you consider the most suitable as Assistant Professor to teach classroom courses in Corrections at your School? (Assume 5 years of good experience as a university instructor and in working with offenders.) Graduate Degree in: (check one)

- ☐ a) Social Work ☐ c) Sociology ☐ e) Public Administration
☐ b) Corrections ☐ d) Police Science ☐ f) Other _____

B. Which work background do you consider the most suitable as Assistant Professor to teach classroom courses in Corrections at your School? (Assume this experience is combined with the education you desire.) Five years of work experience: (check one)

- ☐ a) As a practitioner and administrator in a correctional agency other than law enforcement.
☐ b) As a law enforcement officer and administrator.
☐ c) Teaching and research in a school of social work.
☐ d) Teaching and research in a university department of corrections.
☐ e) Teaching and research in a university department of social science.
☐ f) Other _____

7) Which of the following conditions generally govern those of your faculty who are teaching field or classroom courses in Corrections and Criminology/Social Deviance this academic year?

a) Faculty salaries depend on funds made available through a correctional agency:
☐ For all faculty ☐ For none of the faculty
☐ For at least 1 faculty member

b) Faculty are employees of a correctional agency:
☐ All faculty ☐ None of the faculty
☐ At least one faculty member

c) Faculty are able to advocate practices which directly contradict the regulations of correctional agencies within your State:
☐ Whenever their professional judgment so indicates.
☐ Upon prior approval of specified faculty or administrators.
☐ Faculty required to endorse State and local regulations.

8) For each pair of statements below, please check which one fits better as a description of your Master's degree courses in Corrections.*

* You will recall that these are courses specifically designed to train students for practice or administration of programs in the prevention, care and treatment of delinquents and criminals.

A. The major emphasis of our curriculum content is on:

- a) Descriptions and explanations of the nature of criminal activity.
b) Principles and suggestions for direct practice with suspected or adjudicated offenders.
☐ Statement (a) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.
☐ Statement (b) fits better.

B. Our instruction is intended mainly:

- a) To better prepare students for the conditions of Correctional practice which apply in a particular area or system.
b) To better prepare students for the conditions of practice which apply generally in the Correctional field.
☐ Statement (a) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.
☐ Statement (b) fits better.

C. Our instruction is primarily designed to provide:

- a) A general introduction—or overview—to the practitioner's job in a Correctional field.
b) Detailed information and procedures for carrying out the practitioner's job in a Correctional field.
☐ Statement (a) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.
☐ Statement (b) fits better.

D. As a guide to practitioner conduct, our instruction emphasizes the desirability of relying on:

- a) Agency rules, and suggestions from administrators in the employing agency.
b) Professional codes, and suggestions from colleagues in the profession.
☐ Statement (a) fits better. ☐ Both statements fit equally well.
☐ Statement (b) fits better.

SECTION III: SPECIAL NON-CREDIT PROGRAMS

1) A. Does your school conduct special courses, institutes or workshops aimed at personnel groups who work with offenders (exclude courses for academic credit)?

Conducted
in 1965-66

Will be conducted
in 1966-67

a) Probation/Parole Officers

☐

☐

- b) Probation/Parole Supervisors or Administrators
- c) Parole Board Members
- d) Police
- e) Administrators of Correctional Institutions.....
- f) Correctional Officers
- g) Cottage Parents
- h) Prosecuting Attorneys
- i) Public Defenders
- j) Criminal Court Judges
- k) Family or Juvenile Court Judges
- l) Other (please specify)

☐
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B. Were any of these special programs co-sponsored by Correctional organizations?

☐ YES ☐ NO

2) A. Please check any of the following types of Crime and Delinquency Centers which exist at your university. (Do not include short-term or summer courses, institutes or workshops conducted annually or semi-annually—or centers established solely for research.) ☐ No such center exists at our university. (check as many as apply)

- ☐ a) Center for Police Training.
- ☐ b) Center for Correctional Administration.
- ☐ c) Crime or Delinquency Control Center.
- ☐ d) President's Committee Training Center.
- ☐ e) Youth Studies Center.
- ☐ f) Other type of Crime and Delinquency Training Center.

B.

(Name of center checked above)

(Director)

SECTION IV: NEW EDUCATIONAL PLANS AND GRANTS

This section is concerned with new educational plans and grants for preparing students to work with offenders in various agencies of law enforcement, criminal justice or corrections.

Please indicate your views on desirable education for these work roles even if your school has no immediate plans for specialized training of this nature.

1) If Congress were to consider establishing a National Institute of Law Enforcement, Criminal Justice and Corrections—following the pattern of the National Institutes of Mental Health—would you approve such a development?

- ☐ a) Strongly approve
- ☐ b) Moderately approve
- ☐ c) Moderately disapprove
- ☐ d) Strongly disapprove
- ☐ e) Indifferent or can't say

2) A. If Congress were to consider allocating special funds for universities to train students so they are prepared to work with offenders, which of the following would you recommend?

- a) Grants for additional faculty in those schools and departments currently engaged in such training
- b) Grants for additional faculty in those schools and departments planning to institute such training
- c) Grants to expand the physical facilities of those schools and departments currently engaged in such training
- d) Grants to expand the physical facilities of those schools and departments planning to institute such training
- e) Grants to individual faculty for research on problems related to working with offenders

Recommended

Not recommended

☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐

B. How is your School prepared to use additional funds in training students for work with offenders if such funds are made available by Congress? (check as many as apply)

- ☐ a) Salaries for additional faculty.
- ☐ b) Funds for additional physical facilities.
- ☐ c) Scholarships to your students.
- ☐ d) A Crime and Delinquency Training Center responsible to your department.
- ☐ e) Our School is not now interested in federal funds for additional training of students to work with offenders.

3) A. If Congress were to consider allocating special funds for university-based training of manpower to work with offenders, how would you recommend that this money be distributed?

- a) \$3,600 scholarships distributed by correctional agencies to employees on leave as full-time students
- b) \$3,600 scholarships distributed by university schools and departments designated as appropriate for training students to work with offenders
- c) Work-study grants to match salaries of agency employees who enroll as full-time students while maintaining a partial agency workload
- d) Study grants to match salaries of agency employees who attend school full-time without any agency workload
- e) Study grants (equivalent to practitioner salaries) for a summer program of specialized training at a University Crime and Delinquency Center

Recommended

Not recommended

☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐
☐

B. Which of the plans outlined above are your preferred choices?

a b c d e

(circle no more than two)

4) A. If Congress were to consider allocating special grants for agency-based training of manpower to work with offenders, how would you recommend that this money be distributed?

- a) On a 50/50 matching basis to agencies with training programs

Recommended

Not recommended

☐
☐

- b) On the basis of acceptable training proposals ☐ ☐
- c) On the basis of staff size..... ☐ ☐
- d) On priority basis to agencies starting new training programs ☐ ☐
- e) On a priority basis to agencies with a full-time training staff ☐ ☐
- B. Which of the above are your preferred choices?

a b c d e
(circle no more than two)

- 5) A. Do you think it important that University Centers for Training and Research in law enforcement, criminal justice and corrections be established in various parts of the country?
- ☐ a) Extremely important ☐ c) Somewhat important
- ☐ b) Quite important ☐ d) Not at all important
- B. Do you think it important to establish a Crime and Delinquency Center of this kind at your own University (or College)?
- ☐ a) Extremely important ☐ c) Somewhat important
- ☐ b) Quite important ☐ d) Not at all important
- ☐ e) We already have such a Center
- 6) A. If your university were to establish (or has) a Crime and Delinquency Center, what would you recommend to be included in its program?

Recommended
(check as many as apply)

- a) Research on causes and types of criminal and delinquent behavior..... ☐
- b) Research on practice decisions, processes and outcomes in work with offenders ☐
- c) Summer training programs for graduate students of professional schools on the application of professional knowledge to work with offenders..... ☐
- d) Short-term training programs for agency practitioners on the application of professional knowledge to their work with offenders ☐
- e) Consultation with agencies working with offenders on innovations in programs, roles and research..... ☐
- f) Small-scale demonstration programs on work with offenders..... ☐

- B. Which of the programs outlined above are your preferred choices?

a b c d e f
(circle no more than two)

- C. How many students who are interested in work with offenders do you think would profit from special courses offered by a Crime and Delinquency Center at your University?
- ☐ All ☐ Many ☐ A Few ☐ None

- 7) A. If a Crime and Delinquency Center were to be established (or already exists) at your University, what personnel would you recommend for its staff?

Recommended
(check as many as apply)

- a) Faculty from those professional schools concerned with training and research for work with offenders ☐
- b) Faculty from those social science departments concerned with training and research for work with offenders ☐
- c) Experienced staff from agencies which work with offenders ☐

- B. Which one of the above do you think should make up the greatest percentage of Center staff? (circle one only)

a b c

- 8) A. If Congress were to allocate funds, what is your estimate of the proportion of federal funds which would likely be required to establish and maintain a Crime and Delinquency Center at your university for a 3-year experimental period? (check one)

	Federal government share	University share
<input type="checkbox"/>	100%	0%
<input type="checkbox"/>	75%	25%
<input type="checkbox"/>	50%	50%
<input type="checkbox"/>	25%	75%
<input type="checkbox"/>	Not feasible at our university under any such funding arrangement.	

- 9) A. What administrative structure would you recommend for a Crime and Delinquency Center at your university? (Check here if you feel you have no strong views on desired Center structure ☐)

Recommended
(check as many as apply)

- a) A Center responsible to central university administration..... ☐
- b) A Center responsible to your school ☐
- c) A Center responsible to another department or school at your university..... ☐
- d) A Center responsible to practice agencies and a university school or department ☐
- e) An autonomous Center which is administratively independent of the university and practice agencies ☐

- B. Which of the above would be your first choice?

a b c d e
(circle one only)

- 10) A. Do you approve or disapprove of universities (colleges) offering programs such as those listed below?

	Approve as degree programs at the university	Approve only as special (non-credit) university programs	Disapprove of these programs at the university
a) Undergraduate programs with a "concentration" * in police science.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b) Graduate programs with a "concentration" in police science.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c) Undergraduate programs with a "concentration" in corrections.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d) Undergraduate programs with a "concentration" in social welfare.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

* 12 or more credit hours in a defined program of study.

- e) Master of social work programs with a "concentration" in Corrections ☐ ☐ ☐
- f) LL.B. (J.D.) programs with a "concentration" in Criminal Law..... ☐ ☐ ☐
- B. Do you think that the Police College whose students are required to be employees of law enforcement agencies should be part of a public university?
- a) ☐ Approve b) ☐ Disapprove c) ☐ No opinion
- C. Do you think that a college degree should be awarded to student-employees of the Police College located at a public university upon completion of the prescribed course of study?
- a) ☐ Approve b) ☐ Disapprove c) ☐ No opinion
- 11) Assume that substantially greater funds and facilities were made available to educate personnel for the positions listed below. Which University Program Area(s) would you then advocate for each personnel group?

- University Program Areas*
- | | | |
|-----------------|------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Criminology | 5. Police Science | 9. Public Administration |
| 2. Corrections | 6. Psychiatry | 10. Social Work |
| 3. Law—general | 7. Psychology—general | 11. Sociology—general |
| 4. Law—criminal | 8. Psychology—clinical | |

Select (by number from 1–11) the University Program Areas which you advocate for each personnel group.

	<i>University program area in which you strongly advocate a degree (select one area only)</i>	<i>University program area(s) in which you strongly advocate a series of courses (select as many areas as apply)</i>
A. Law Enforcement Personnel		
a) Administrative personnel	_____	_____
b) Police officers—adult division	_____	_____
c) Police officers—juvenile division	_____	_____
B. Court Personnel		
a) Judges in criminal courts	_____	_____
b) Judges in juvenile or family courts	_____	_____
c) Prosecuting Attorneys	_____	_____
d) Public Defender Attorneys	_____	_____
C. Probation and Parole Personnel		
a) Administrative personnel	_____	_____
b) Probation/Parole officers—adult division	_____	_____
c) Probation/Parole officers—juvenile division	_____	_____
D. Personnel in Juvenile Institutions		
a) Administrative personnel	_____	_____
b) Cottage parents	_____	_____
c) Classification and Assignment personnel.....	_____	_____
d) Diagnostic and Treatment personnel	_____	_____
E. Prison and Reformatory Personnel		
a) Administrative personnel	_____	_____
b) Correctional Officers	_____	_____
c) Classification and Assignment personnel.....	_____	_____
d) Diagnostic and Treatment personnel	_____	_____
e) General Counseling personnel	_____	_____

GENERAL INFORMATION

- 1) _____
(Name of your school and university)
- 2) Your Name _____ Position _____
(please print)
- 3) Do any other schools or departments at your university offer a substantial number of courses which prepare students for practice with offenders? ☐ NO
☐ YES (Names of schools or departments)
1. _____ 2. _____
- 4) Please check those factors which either helped or hindered your School in planning or organizing field work or classroom courses in Corrections for this academic year.
- | | <i>Helped</i> | <i>Hindered</i> |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| A. Availability of Resources: | | |
| a) Availability of funds | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b) Availability of space | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) Availability of good faculty..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d) Availability of good students..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| e) Size of faculty load | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| f) Availability of suitable agencies for field placements | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| B. Attitudes and Actions of: | | |
| a) Personnel in the university administration..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b) Personnel within your own school..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c) Personnel in other schools or departments of the university..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d) Faculty senate or university committees | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| e) Personnel in correctional organizations in the community..... | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| f) C.S.W.E. and its related committees | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Please check here if your school would like a copy of our study report. ☐

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